

890

G81Z
i

UC-NRLF

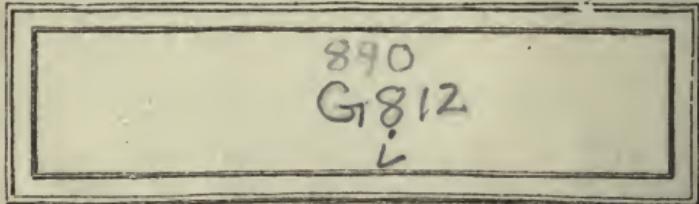
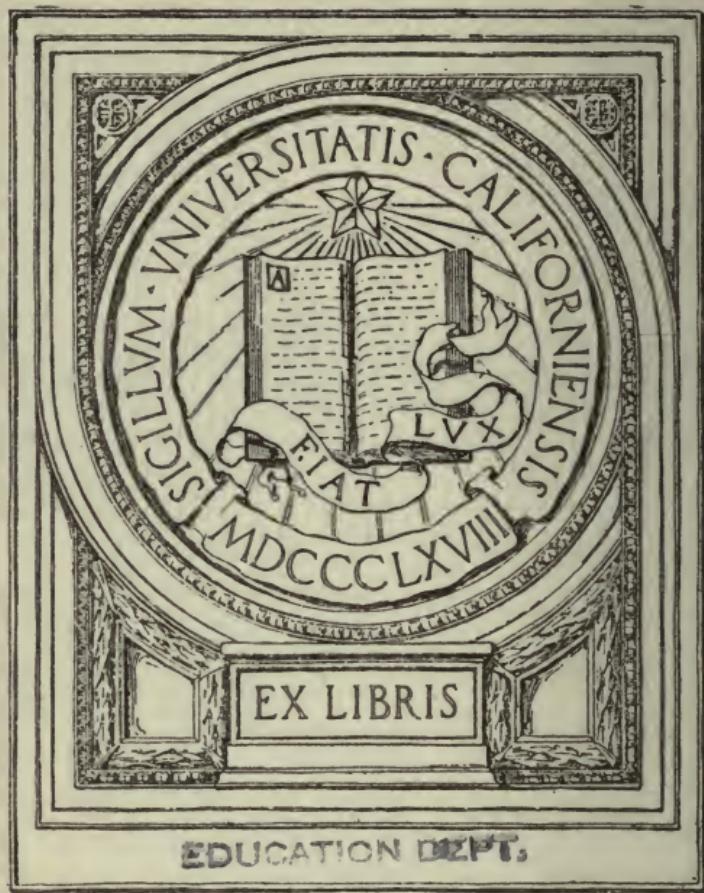


\$B 266 868

INTRODUCTION

CONCLUDING

15



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

Greene's Introduction

A N

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY

SAMUEL S. GREENE,

AUTHOR OF "ANALYSIS," "FIRST LESSONS," ETC.



PHILADELPHIA:
COWPERTHWAIT & CO.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1856, by
S A M U E L S . G R E E N E ,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States for
the District of Rhode Island.

STEREOTYPED BY J. FAGAN.

EDUCATION DEPT.

P R E F A C E.

THIS Introduction to the study of English Grammar is based upon the same general plan as the "ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR." The Introductory and Oral Exercises are all brought together in Part I. They embrace a series of lessons commencing with elementary principles entirely familiar to the merest child. By a gradual succession of exercises, which require a constant use of well-known and familiar objects, the learner, almost imperceptibly, masters the different parts of speech. And not only so, he learns their principal properties, and various uses in construction. The inductive method prevails throughout the whole of this part; and such is the nature and arrangement of the Lessons, that a child cannot faithfully perform the exercises without being thoroughly prepared to enter upon the more formal study of Grammar.

In Part II., the principles of English Grammar are stated in the form of definitions and rules, to be committed to memory, and applied in the exercises. In preparing this abridgement of the larger work, it has been thought best to exclude the critical Remarks and Notes, rather than the practical Exercises. Hence many discussions important to a thorough knowledge of Grammar are here omitted, and should be supplied, whenever needed, from the Elements. The peculiarities of the work to which the author would call special attention are these:—

1. It begins with what the child already *knows*, and advances step by step, deriving new facts and new relations, from what is already established and familiar.

2. The *order* of development is natural and easy. Grammar is the analysis of speech ; and when we speak, we utter something of some *object*. The mind is occupied first with the *object* itself ; then with its *qualities*, *actions*, or *relations*,—and hence, in speaking, we use *nouns*, or *object-words*, *adjectives*, or *quality-words*, *verbs*, or *action-words*, and so of other classes of words.

3. The relation between expressions and the ideas for which they stand is constantly illustrated by appeals to familiar things, and to the child's own habits of speaking.

4. It requires a perpetual use of the pen or pencil, the only true way to learn to *write* the English language correctly.

5. It requires at the outset, a strict attention to the rules of criticism.

6. It teaches a child to analyze his own thoughts, and to comprehend and appreciate the expressions he employs in uttering them. It presents the sentence, not only in its parts, consisting of words, phrases, and clauses, but as a whole,—a complete structure designed to convey a thought to the minds of others.

The Exercises for practice, in some parts, may not be found sufficient for the beginner. The Teacher will readily supply any deficiency of this kind. Indeed, it will often be best in teaching, to multiply examples given spontaneously by the teacher, or, which is far better, drawn from the members of the class. For a more extended discussion of the various parts, reference should be had to the author's "Elements," or "Analysis of Sentences."

S. S. GREENE.

PROVIDENCE, September, 1856.

CONTENTS.

PART I.

LESSON		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTORY.—Speaking.....	7
II.	Objects—Nouns.....	8
III.	Criticism.....	9
IV.	Sentence—Subject and Predicate.....	11
V.	The uses of the Noun in the sentence.....	13
VI.	Qualities—Adjectives.....	16
VII.	The Adjective in the Predicate	19
VIII.	The Adjective used to show what kind.....	20
IX.	Actions—Verbs—Participles	22
X.	Uses of the Verb and Participle.....	24
XI.	Adverb—Its Uses.....	26
XII.	Modifying or Limiting—Analysis	27
XIII.	Relations—Propositions	30
XIV.	Connections—Conjunctions and Interjections	32
XV.	Common and Proper Nouns	34
XVI.	Number, Singular and Plural.....	35
XVII.	Person, First, Second, Third	36
XVIII.	Gender, Masculine, Feminine, Neuter	40
XIX.	Case, Nominative, Possessive, Objective	42
XX.	Transitive and Intransitive Verbs	44
XXI.	Mode	47
XXII.	Tense	49
XXIII.	Regular and Irregular Verbs	53
XXIV.	Agreement of the Verb with the Subject.....	54
XXV.	Comparison of Adjectives	56

PART II.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

XXVI.	Definitions.....	60
XXVII.	Elementary Sounds	60
XXVIII.	Letters	62
XXIX.	Combination of Letters	63
XXX.	Syllables and Words	64

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON		PAGE
XXXI.	Definitions—Parts of Speech.....	66
XXXII.	Nouns	68
XXXIII.	Person	70
XXXIV.	Number	71
XXXV.	Gender	74
XXXVI.	Case	75
XXXVII.	Adjectives.....	78
XXXVIII.	Comparison of Adjectives	80
XXXIX.	Pronouns	83
XL.	Relative and Interrogative Pronouns	87
XLI.	Classes of Verbs	90
XLII.	Voice	92
XLIII.	Mode	94
XLIV.	Tense.....	99
XLV.	Conjugation	103
XLVI.	Irregular Verbs	117
XLVII.	Adverbs.....	124
XLVIII.	Prepositions	126
XLIX.	Conjunctions	128
L.	Interjections	130

SYNTAX.

LI.	Sentences	131
LI.	Propositions	132
LIII.	Classes of Propositions	135
LIV.	Elements of Sentences	137
LV.	Elements continued	140
LVI.	Definitions and Rules	143
LVII.	Elements of the first class—Words	146
LVIII.	Construction of the Predicate	148
LIX.	Construction of the Adjective Element	152
LX.	The Objective Element	158
LXI.	Construction of the Adverbial Element	161
LXII.	Construction and use of Connectives	164
LXIII.	Elements of the second class—Phrases	166
LXIV.	Construction of Subordinate Connectives	170
LXV.	Exercises	173
LXVI.	Infinitive and Participle	175

PROSODY.

LXVII.	Verse, Feet, Scanning.....	178
LXVIII.	Punctuation	183

GREENE'S INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

LESSON I.

The sun is shining.

What have I just said? *Ans.*—That the sun is shining.

Of what brilliant *object* have I spoken? *Ans.*—The sun.

What have I said of it? *Ans.*—That it is shining.

The moon is bright.

Of what *object* have I spoken now?

What have I said of it?

The lamb skips.

Of what *object* have I spoken here?

What have I said of it?

James is a good boy.

Of what *object* have I spoken in this example?

What have I said of him? Then—

When we speak, we say something of some object.

Of what *objects* do we speak in these examples ?

The star is twinkling.

The duck is swimming.

The tree bends.

The dog is barking.

Point to any five objects in this room. Say something of each.

LESSON II.

NOTE.—The Teacher is now supposed to stand at the black-board, and to hold up before the class any convenient object, as, a pen, asking, as in the Lesson, "What object is this?" Every pupil should answer.

What object is this? *Ans.*—A pen.

What word shall I write for it? *Ans.*—The word pen.

Now, where is the *word* pen? Point to it.

Where is the pen itself, or the *object* pen? Point.

Speak the *word* pen. Can you speak the *object* pen?

Can you write the *word* pen?

Can you write the *object* pen?

Now, tell which is the *object*, and which is the mere *object-word*, or name of the object.

The object-word, or name of the object, is called a Noun.

What is the word *pen* the name of? *Ans.*—An object.

What is the word *desk* the name of?

What do you call the words *pen* and *desk*? Why?

What do you call the word *knife*?

What do you call the *knife itself*?

Which can you speak? With which can you cut?

The object is one thing, and its name another.

Which is a noun? Which is not?

The *pen*, the *desk*, and the *knife*, are objects; what shall we call this book? This pencil? This bell? Any of these scholars, or any of these things in this room? The plants in the garden? The trees in the forest? The animals on the land? The fishes in the sea?

What are their *names*? Then—

The names of objects are nouns.

What do you call each of these words:—

Lion. Tulip. Oak.

Tiger. Lilac. Ash.

Fox. Pink. Pine.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Write, in columns, the names of any ten objects in this room.

LESSON III.

NOTE.—The pupils are supposed to have before them their slates, containing the exercise required in Lesson II.

How many of you have written *objects* on your slates?

How many have written *object-words*?

What are these words? Why?

What are the things themselves?

How many have written the word *desk*?

How many have begun it with a capital letter, thus :
Desk?

How many with a small letter, thus : *desk?*

How many have begun any other words with small letters ?

Any word written by itself should begin with a capital.

Mark every error in the use of capitals, thus : (x).

How many have written the word *knife* ?

How many have spelled it as on this slate, *nife* ?

Is that right ? How should it be ?

Every word should be spelled correctly.

Mark every error in spelling.

How many have placed a period (.) at the end of each word ? How many have not ?

A period should be placed at the end of every word written by itself.

Mark each omission of the period.

NOTE.—The Teacher will do well at first to examine each slate separately, often placing an error upon the board for the benefit of the whole class. Every error, whether in the direction, the size, the formation, or the proportion of the letters, in the space between the words, or in the use of punctuation marks, from this Lesson onwards, should be noted and corrected. The class will soon render themselves and the Teacher much aid, by exchanging slates, and correcting each other's work.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. You may now re-write all these examples, correct all the errors, and preserve

the work for the next Lesson. You may also write the names of any ten objects seen on the way to school.

LESSON IV.

How many have written the examples given out in the last Lesson? Exchange slates, and see if every example is written correctly. Examine Lesson I., and see if anything is said of the objects which you have named?

A noun alone can name an object, but can never say or affirm anything.

The kite is flying.

The road is rough.

The wind blows

Is anything said of the objects named in these examples?

Name the objects of which something is said, thus: What is flying? What is rough? What blows? Tell *what is said* or *affirmed* of each, thus: What is said of the kite? Of the road? Of the winds?

When anything is said or affirmed of an object, the words form a sentence.

Tell which of the following expressions are sentences:—

In the spring.

Birds fly.

Industrious men.

The bees are buzzing.

The earth is a globe.

Paul the Apostle.

The water is warm.

Is anything said or affirmed of *spring*? Of *birds*? Of *men*? Of the *bees*? Of the *earth*? Of *Paul*? Of *water*? Which are sentences?

Say something of these objects:—

The boys are playing.

The dogs — — —.

The fishes — — —.

The sun — — —.

The ice — — —.

Tell what is *spoken of* in each. Tell what is *said*. Are they sentences? Why?

In the following examples, insert something to show what is spoken of:—

The — — is running.

The — — is swimming.

The — — are sweet.

The — — is falling.

What is running? What is swimming? What are sweet? What is falling? Are these examples sentences? Why? In every sentence—

That of which something is said or affirmed, is called the subject.

That which is said or affirmed, is called the predicate.

Tell the subject and predicate in these examples:—

The fire burns

Trees grow.

Winter is coming.

The flowers fade

The boy is playing.

To find the subject, ask, What burns? What

grows? What is coming? What fades? Who is playing? What kind of words are they? To find the predicate, ask, What is said of the fire? Of trees? Of winter? Of the flowers? Of the boy?

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Fill these blank places with subjects:—

_____ is reaping.
_____ is walking.
_____ roars.

_____ is studying.
_____ barks.
_____ is kind.

Fill these with predicates:—

The stars _____.	The snow _____.
The peaches _____.	The clouds _____.
The bells _____.	The lawyer _____.

Form four short sentences, taking for subjects any objects in this room. Be careful to begin each with a capital, and to place a period at the end of each.

LESSON V.

You may read your examples from the slates.

With what kind of letters do you begin each example? Have you placed a period at the end of each? Are your examples sentences? Why?

Point out the subjects and predicates in each.

How do you find the subject? How the predicate? What kind of a word is the subject in each? Then—

A noun may stand for the subject of a sentence.

Point out the subjects in the following examples:—

Victoria is a queen.
The globe is a ball.
The oak is a tree.
The lily is a plant.

What kind of words are these subjects? What is the predicate in each? that is, What is said of each? What kind of words are *queen*, *ball*, *tree*, *plant*? Does *queen* mean the same person as *Victoria*, or does it mean a different person? Does *globe* mean the same object as *ball*? Does *tree* mean the same as *oak*? Does *plant* mean the same as *lily*? How many nouns in each sentence? Which is the subject? Which is in the predicate?

A noun with "is" may stand as the predicate of a sentence.

Put in a noun after "is" to form a predicate in the following:—

The earth is a ____.
 This object is a ____.
 This thing is a ____.
 This boy is a good ____.

What is said of the earth? Of this object? Of this thing? Of this boy? What kind of words have you added? Which is the subject noun? Which is the predicate noun? Do they mean the same object?

Venus, a planet.
 Scott, the commander.
 James, the treasurer.
 John, the carpenter.

What Venus is meant? What Scott? What James? Which John? Is anything said or affirmed of Venus? Of Scott? Of James? Of John? Are the examples sentences? How many nouns in each? Do they mean the same person or thing? Then—

A noun without "is" may stand after another noun which means the same person or thing, to show which one or what one is meant; but the words do not form a sentence.

Put "is" after Venus, Scott, James, and John in the examples above, and state whether anything is said of each noun? Then—

The word "is" helps us to say or affirm something of the subject. It is called the VERB, the important word, because nothing can be said or affirmed without a verb.

Take away "is" from the examples in this Lesson. Is anything said?

What word must fill the blanks, in order that something may be said in these examples?

Horace — a scholar.

Ice — cold.

The girl — sewing.

The orange — sweet.

What do you call the word? In the last example, if there were more than one orange, what word then would fill the blank? *Ans.—"Are."* Then—

When the subject means more than one object, the verb should be "are," and not "is."

Correct these examples, and tell why you change the verb:—

Some boys is playing.

The lessons is easy.

His sisters is sick.

Your whip are broken.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Fill each of the following blanks with a noun — first, so as to show what is said ; and, second, so as to distinguish what one :—

Henry the carpenter.
Henry is the carpenter.
Napoleon the _____.
Napoleon is the _____.
Mr. Lane the _____.
Mr. Lane is the _____.
The pine a _____.
The pine is a _____.

Fill the following blanks with nouns. Tell which nouns show what object is spoken of,— which with “is” show what is said,—and which distinguish what one is meant :—

George the _____.
Mr. Dickinson is a _____.
My dog — is a _____.
Your brother — is a good _____.
His sister — is a _____.
Their — — is a — — —.

Put these nouns into sentences of your own : Strawberries, peaches, sheep, doves, boys.

LESSON VI.

Read your examples from the slate.

How many sentences are there ?

What word have you used to distinguish which ‘George’ is meant ? Explain the examples as directed in the last Lesson.

Now, what is this ? *Ans.—An orange.*

How does it taste? *Ans.*—Sweet.

What word shall I write to express the *quality* sweet? *Ans.*—The word sweet.

Now, where is the *word* sweet?

Where do you find the *quality* itself?

Which can you speak?

Which can you taste?

Which can you write?

Which is the *quality* itself, and which is the *quality-word*, or name of the quality?

The quality-word, or name of the quality, is called an Adjective.

What, then, is the word *sweet* called?

What is the shape of the orange? *Ans.*—Round.

What do you call the word *round*?

What do you call the shape itself? *Ans.*—A quality.

Which can you speak, the quality or the quality-word?

Which can you feel?

What is the color of the orange?

Which is the quality?

Which is the adjective?

What other qualities has the orange? What kind of orange is it? Is it ripe, or unripe? Large or small? Hard or soft?

What do you call these quality-words?

What do they show? *Ans.*—The qualities of the orange, or, what kind of orange it is.

What kind of word is orange?

Is *peach* an object-word or a quality-word?

Is it a noun or an adjective?

Tell whether each one of the following words is a noun or an adjective.

Cherry.

Ripe.

Hard.

Red.

Soft.

Board.

Smooth.

Apple.

Rough.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Fill the following blanks with adjectives:—

The — tiger sprang upon the horse.

— fields, — lakes, and — mountains add a charm to the landscape.

The — eagle spread his wings.

I have lost a — dollar.

Write, in columns, adjectives for all the qualities you can think of in an apple, a rose, a sponge.

Write also, in columns, the names of objects which have these qualities:—

Bright.

Smooth.

Soft.

Sour.

Beautiful.

Blue.

NOTE.—The Teacher will do well to show the class how to discover the qualities of objects. Thus: he can take any object, and tell the children to *look* at it, and *see* whether it is long or short, thick or thin, old or new, large or small, round or square, &c., &c. He can let them *feel* it, and thus determine whether it is rough or smooth, hot or cold, hard or soft, &c. He can ask, “How does it *smell*? ” “How does it *taste*? ” “Can you *hear* it? ” “What kind of sound does it produce? ” In this way an almost infinite variety of adjectives will be suggested.

LESSON VII.

How many of you have written *qualities*?

How many have written *quality-words*?

In these examples is anything said or affirmed?

+ An adjective alone can never say or affirm anything of an object.

How many have written *objects*?

How many have written *nouns*?

What nouns have you for objects containing the quality *bright*? The quality *smooth*? The quality *soft*? The quality *sour*? The quality *beautiful*? The quality *blue*? Is anything said of each?

What quality belongs to the object *sugar*? Ans.—The quality *sweet*.

Then, what object-word should the quality-word *sweet* belong to? Ans.—The object-word or noun *sugar*. Then—

+ Adjectives are joined or added to nouns.

How can we join the adjective *sweet* to the noun *sugar*, so as to show what is said or affirmed of the sugar?

Ans.—Thus: “Sugar is sweet.”

Is this a sentence? Why?

What is the subject? What kind of word is it—a noun or an adjective?

What is the predicate—that is, what shows what is said of the sugar?

What kind of word is ‘*is*’?

What kind of word is *sweet*? Then—

An adjective joined to a noun with 'is' or 'are' may stand as the predicate of a sentence.

Point out the predicates in the following examples:

The sun is bright. Snow is white.

The knife is sharp. Grapes are delicious.

Are these examples sentences? Why?

Take away the verb, and are they sentences? (See Lesson V.)

What is the subject in each sentence?

Point out the nouns. Point out the adjectives.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Write sentences containing the following adjectives:— Glassy, yellow, thin, dark, shrill, mellow, hard, brittle.

Fill the blanks in the following examples, and state which of the words inserted are nouns, and which are adjectives:—

The violet is ____.

Charles is a ____.

The butterfly is ____.

The clouds are ____.

The lizard is a ____.

—————

LESSON VIII.

NOTE.—At each new Lesson, the last should be reviewed, and the slate exercise carefully examined.

Name the nouns in these examples:—

Tall pines.

Ripe berries.

Brave men.

Golden clouds.

Are these examples sentences? Why not?

What kind of pines are mentioned? Of men? Of berries? Of clouds? To what are tall, brave, ripe, and golden added? What do they show? What kind of words are they? Then —

An adjective may be added to a noun to show what kind, but the words do not form a sentence.

Name the nouns in the following sentences:—

Ripe berries are sweet.

Those boys are sick.

Young children are playful.

The third house is white.

Name the adjectives. Which adjectives show what is said? Which show what kind? Do *those* and *third* show what kind? What do they show? Are they quality-words?

Words which do not express quality, if added to nouns, are adjectives.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Insert adjectives to fill the following blanks, thus:—

Smooth glass.

The glass is *smooth*.

— clouds.

The clouds are —.

— ice.

The ice is —.

— peaches.

The peaches are —.

Point out the nouns. Point out the adjectives. Which show what kind? Which show what is said?

Which of the examples are sentences. How do you know a sentence? (See Lesson IV.)

Insert adjectives in the following blanks, — the first to show what kind, the second to show what is said, thus:—

Ripe pine-apples are *delicious*.

— trees are —.

— child is —.

— books are —.

LESSON IX.

What is Robert doing yonder? *Ans.*—He is walking. Then, he is performing an *action*. What word shall we write for this action? *Ans.*—The word *walking*. Now, where is the *word* walking? *Ans.*—On the board. Where is the *walking* itself, or the *action* walking? *Ans.*—Yonder, where Robert is.

Which can you speak, the action or the action-word?

Point out the action-words in the following examples:—

The horse is running.

The birds are flying.

The dog is barking.

The snow is falling.

The bells are ringing.

Are these examples sentences? What is the subject in each? Why? What is the predicate? Point out the verb? Then, like the adjective—

An action-word with the verb ‘is’ or ‘are’ may stand as the predicate.

Take away the verb ‘is’ or ‘are’ from the examples above. Is anything said or affirmed now? Are they sentences? Place the action-word before the noun, thus:—

- The *running* horse.
- The —— birds.
- The —— dog.
- The —— snow.
- The —— bells.

What kind of horse? Of birds? Of dog? Of snow? Of bells? Are these last examples sentences? Then, like the adjective—

The action-word may be added to a noun to express what kind, but the words do not form a sentence.

Alter the above examples. thus:—

FIRST FORM.

- The horse is running.
- The birds are flying.
- The dog is barking.
- The snow is falling.
- The bells are ringing.

SECOND FORM.

- The horse *runs*.
- The birds ——.
- The dog ——.
- The snow ——.
- The bells ——.

What is said of horse in the first form? What in the second? What is the action-word in the first? What in the second? What says or affirms the action in the first form? What in the second? Then—

An action-word may have two forms— one can affirm or say something; the other cannot.

That which affirms is called the VERB.

That which does not affirm is called the PARTICIPLE, it being partly verb and partly adjective.

Name the verbs in the examples above.

Name the participles. How are they formed?

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Insert participles in the following blanks—first, so as to show what is said; and second, so as to show what kind:—

The sun is *rising*.

The *rising* sun.

The snow is —.

The — snow.

The leaves are —.

The — leaves.

The stars are —.

The — stars.

Insert verbs to fill the following blanks:—

Trees *grow*.

Fishes —.

Honeysuckles —.

Kings —.

Rain —.

Sparrows —.

Write sentences containing the following verbs and participles:—

Studies, plays, reading, gliding, drinks, sitting, stands.

LESSON X.

Trees grow.

What grow? What is said of trees? Is the example a sentence? Why? What is the subject? What is the predicate? How many words in the predicate? What kind of word is it? Then—

A verb alone may stand as a predicate.

Can a participle alone stand as predicate? Can a noun? Can an adjective? Is an action-word always a verb? Is a verb always an action-word?

Tell the verbs in the following examples:—

- The tree stands.
- The child sleeps.
- The workmen rest.
- The boys sit.

Are they action-words? *Ans.*—They are not;—they merely express state. Then—

Any word which of itself affirms something, whether an action-word or not, is a verb.

Tell the verbs, participles, nouns, and adjectives, in the following examples:—

- A good time is coming.
- The tall oak bends.
- The winter is cold.
- The evening is dark.
- The rising sun is bright.
- The bright planet is setting.

When the participle is preceded by 'is' or 'are,' the two words taken together are commonly called the verb; as, "is coming," "is setting."

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Fill these blanks—the first three with participles—the second three with verbs:—

- The children are ____.
- The ____ lion frightens the flocks.
- The moon is ____ brightly.
- Wolves ____ sheep.
- The grass ____ in the meadow.
- The house ____ on the hill.

Write a sentence containing *this*, *sweet*, and *is*; another containing *rides*, and *street*; another containing *sailing*, *lake*, and *boat*; another containing *garden*, *growing*, and *large*; another containing *oxen*, *sled*, and *gentle*.

LESSON XI.

NOTE.—The teacher here illustrates the adverb, as indicated in the Lesson

How does my hand move? *Ans.*—Slowly.

How does it move now? *Ans.*—Quickly.

To what are slowly and quickly added? *Ans.*—To the verb *move*.

What do they show? *Ans.*—*How* the hand moves.

Arthur walks yonder.

The examination commences to-day.

Where does Arthur walk? To what is ‘yonder’ added? What does it show? To what is ‘to-day’ added? What does it show? What kind of words are ‘walks’ and ‘commences’?

A word added to a verb, to show ‘how,’ ‘where,’ or ‘when’ the action takes place, is called an Adverb.

The weather is extremely cold.

What word shows *how* cold it is? To what is ‘extremely’ added? What kind of word is ‘cold’?

A word added to an adjective to show ‘how’ the quality is taken, is called an adverb.

Charles speaks very distinctly.

How does Charles speak? What kind of word is 'distinctly?' What word shows *how* distinctly? To what is 'very' added?

A word added to an adverb is also called an adverb.

Point out the adverbs in the following examples:—

Lawrence writes carefully.

Rebecca is coming early.

That man is very old.

The coachman drove more slowly.

The willow is growing there.

The ink is quite thick.

The steamer leaves to-day.

Henry entered too abruptly.

Why is 'carefully' an adverb? To what is it added? What does it show?

Answer similar questions for each adverb.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Fill the following blanks with adverbs:—

The sun shines ——.

The golden grain waves ——.

The rooms are —— small.

He has acted —— rashly.

Put the following adverbs into sentences:—Softly, severely, now, not, most, quite, everywhere, generally.

LESSON XII.

To what may an adjective be added? What may it show? To what may an adverb be added? What may it show?

A word added to another, to show ‘what kind,’ ‘how many,’ ‘how,’ ‘where,’ ‘when,’ &c., is said to modify or limit the meaning of the latter.

In the following examples, point out the adjectives and adverbs. Tell what they show ; also, what words they modify :—

- This scarlet geranium is very showy.
- A most glorious sunset.
- A few clouds are still flying.
- On a bright, still day in early spring.
- The travellers were called early.
- The woodbine climbs gracefully.
- The note contained a graceful apology.
- Eugene has bought two greyhounds.

Are all these examples sentences ? Which are not ? Are all the adjectives quality-words ? Which are not ?

The particular adjectives ‘a,’ or ‘an,’ and ‘the,’ are called Articles.

Point out the subjects and predicates in these examples :—

- Lions roar.
- Dogs bark.
- Boys play.

To find the subject, ask, What roar ? What bark ? &c. To find the predicate, ask, ‘What is said of lions ? Of dogs ? &c.

Is either the subject or the predicate modified in these sentences ?

Point out the subjects and predicates in the following examples :—

The cold winds blow.
A gentle shower is falling.
These books are good.

Is the subject modified ? Is the predicate ?

Ask, 1st. What blow? What is falling? &c.

2d. What is said of the winds? Of the shower? &c.

3d. What kind of winds? Of shower?

Point out the subjects, predicates, and modifying-words in the following sentences :—

The little child slumbers quietly.
Eight vessels sail to-day.
The boy reads well.

To ascertain the different parts of these sentences, ask, 1st. Who slumbers? What sail? &c.

2d. What is said of the child? Of the vessels? &c.

3d. What kind of child? How many vessels? &c.

4th. How does the child slumber? When do the vessels sail? &c.

The parts of a sentence may be : 1st. The subject.
2d. The predicate. 3d. The words modifying the subject. 4th. The words modifying the predicate.

When we point out the several parts of a sentence, we analyse it.

Analyse the following sentences :—

Charlotte is going now.
This house is extremely convenient.
Frank is hiding somewhere.
That new poem commences beautifully.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Write two sentences, each containing a noun and a verb.

Write two, each containing a noun, a verb, and an adjective.

Write two, each containing a noun, a verb, and an adverb.

Write two, each containing a noun, a verb, an adjective, and an adverb.

— — —

LESSON XIII.

NOTE.—The Teacher here illustrates the relations as indicated in the Lesson.

Where is this pencil? *Ans.*—*On* the book.

Where is it now? *Ans.*—*Under* the book.

What word shows that its relation to the book has been changed? *Ans.*—The word *under*.

What words show the *relations* of the pencil to the book in the following cases?

The pencil is before the book.

The pencil is behind the book.

The pencil is in the book.

What are the relation-words in the following examples:—

The pencil falls from the book.

The pencil drops out of the book.

The pencil moves towards the book.

The pencil falls upon the book.

Before what noun are these relation-words placed?

Relation-words are called Prepositions, because they are “placed before” nouns.

Point out the prepositions in the following sentences :—

Charles writes with ease.

The balloon hovers over the city.

The lark sings in the morning.

Alice stood on the balcony.

Analyze the above sentences. What does "with ease" show? *Where* does the balloon hover? *When* does the lark sing? What do the words "on the balcony" show? Then —

A preposition and the following noun, when added to a verb, may show, like the adverb, "when," "where," or "how" an action takes place.

Analyze the following sentences :—

The trees of the forest are stately.

The Queen of England is a devoted mother.

The showers of spring fall gently

What trees are mentioned? What does "of England" show? What kind of showers "fall gently"? Then —

A preposition and the following noun, when added to a noun, may show, like the adjective, "what kind," &c.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Insert the proper preposition in the following blanks :—

Edgar walked — the garden.

The woodpecker ran — the trunk — the tree.

I rode — Providence — Boston — the cars.

Harry skated — the pond — the evening.

These men are hastening — the fire.
Emma practised — diligence — two hours.
The dews — the morning glitter — the rays — the rising sun.

Write sentences containing the following prepositions:—Down, among, upon, between, around, along, across, during.

LESSON XIV.

NOTE.—Illustrate as in the Lesson.

What have I in my hand? *Ans.*—A book and a slate.

What word do you use to connect the words ‘book’ and ‘slate’?

What words are connected in the following examples:—

Frank and Margaret like nuts and apples.

Richard and Robert are playing ball.

When I say “Rosamond or Laura wrote the letter,” can you tell which one wrote it?

What word do we use to connect the two names?

Connecting-words, as ‘or,’ ‘and,’ ‘but,’ ‘yet,’ &c., are called Conjunctions.

Point out the conjunctions in these sentences:—

The teacher and the scholars are present.

The pen or the ink is poor.

Arnold is not angry, but sad.

The sun is larger than the moon.

Gertrude has no father nor mother.

Washington always decided wisely and justly.

Name the nouns, the adjectives, the verbs, the adverbs, and the prepositions in the preceding sentences.

When we are suddenly pleased, or frightened, or grieved, we often express our emotion by such exclamations as, Oh ! Alas ! What ! &c. Point out the *emotion-words* in the following examples :—

What ! is it possible that you are here ?
Alas ! alas ! my axe is lost.
Adieu ! my native land, adieu !
Ah me ! I fear the worst.
Hail ! hail to thee, great chief !
O thoughts ineffable ! O visions blest !

Emotion-words are called Interjections.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE. Write sentences containing these interjections :—

Ah ! Hush ! Hurrah ! Oh ! Hark ! Fie !

Write sentences containing these conjunctions :—

But, and, if, then, that, because.

Write six sentences containing —

1. A noun, verb, and adverb.
2. A noun, verb, and participle.
3. Two adjectives connected by a conjunction.
4. A preposition and a participle.
5. An adjective used in the predicate.
6. One noun joined to another to tell *which one is meant.*

LESSON XV.

What is a noun? Has every object you have seen a name?

What is the name of this? (The Teacher here holds up a book.) *Ans.*—A book. And this? *Ans.*—A book. And this? *Ans.*—A book. Then—

Each one of this kind or class of objects has the same name, "book," which is common to all.

Has every tree a name common to all? What is it? Has every boy a name common to all? What is it? Has Albert a name in common with all other boys? What is his own particular name, not common to all boys?

The same object may have two names, a common name, and a particular or proper name.

What two names have the following objects:—Gilbert, Grace, Liverpool, France, Hudson, America?

Has a book a common and a proper name?

Has a tree? A stove? A table?

Proper names are given only to important objects, as persons or places?

Tell which of these nouns are common, and which are proper:—King, Percival, grapes, inkstand, Cuba, Rollo, Clara.

Every proper noun should begin with a capital.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—In the following examples, put a common noun in the first blank, and a proper noun in the second :—

A _____ was fought in _____.

What _____ flows into the _____.

A _____ sailed across the _____.

Fill these blanks, and tell what kind of nouns you insert :—

_____ is walking with his _____.

The _____ commanded the _____ to march to _____.

_____ is situated on an _____.

Write three sentences, each containing a proper noun.

LESSON XVI.

How many books have I? *Ans.*—One.

One what? *Ans.*—One book.

Spell the word as I write it.

How many books have I now? *Ans.*—Two books.

How do you spell the word now?

What letter have you added?

Why do you add the letter *s*? *Ans.*—Because there were two books instead of one. Then—

The word changes on account of the number of books.

How did you write the word when the number was one? How would you write it, if the number were two, three, five, twenty, or a hundred? Then—

The word changes when we pass from one to more than one.

Tell which of the following nouns mean one, and which mean more than one:—Brook, doors, island, day, bricks, desk, car, miles, robins?

Alter those which mean but one, so that they will mean more than one; and those which mean more than one, so that they will mean but one.

When a noun means but one, it is of the singular number.

When a noun means more than one, it is of the plural number.

Tell which of the following nouns are common, and which proper:—Reuben, wafer, fingers, Salem, museum, trees.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—Write the plural of the following nouns:—

Paper, boy, girl, rose, house.

Thrush, marsh, box, bush, church.

Knife, wife, loaf, sheaf, leaf.

Fly, cry, mercy, glory, ally.

Write three sentences, containing each a plural noun, and three, containing each a singular noun.

LESSON XVII.

James says to George, “Herbert is writing.”

How many persons or parties are here mentioned?
Ans.—Three.

Which person is *speaking*?

Which one is *spoken to*?

Which one is *spoken of*?

Suppose Herbert wished to tell George that he himself was writing, would he say "Herbert is writing?"

Ans.—No; he would say, "I am writing."

If the sentence stood thus: Herbert says to George, "Herbert is writing," would you be sure that Herbert was speaking of himself?

When one speaks of himself, he uses "I" instead of his own name.

If James were to speak to *Herbert*, and not to George, as before, would he say "Herbert is writing?"

Ans.—No; he would say, "You are writing."

If he should say, "Herbert is writing," would you think that he was speaking to Herbert or to some one else?

When we speak to any one of himself, we use "you" instead of his own name.

James says to George, "Herbert is writing, but Herbert will soon finish."

What word shall we insert to avoid the repetition of "Herbert?"

Ans.—"He;" we can say, "Herbert is writing, but he will soon finish." Then—

When we speak of another person, we use his name once, and then, to avoid repeating it, we use "he."

For what noun have we used "I," "you," and "he?"

A word used for a noun is called a pronoun.

What kind of words are "I," "you," and "he?"

What pronoun did we use when Herbert **was** speaking?

What when he was spoken to?

What when he was spoken of? Then —

We use different pronouns for the same individual person, when he changes from the speaker to the one spoken to, or spoken of.

Insert the proper pronouns to represent “Walter” in the following blanks : —

“Come,” says Walter, “— am ready for my ride.”

Walter, when are — coming home?

Walter is very ingenious; — has made a little printing-press.

Where is Walter the speaker? What pronoun represents him in that relation? In which example is he spoken to? Why do we change the pronoun from “I” to “you?” *Ans.* — Because Walter changes from the speaker to the one spoken to.

What pronoun represents Walter as spoken of? What have we changed, the individual, or the pronoun that represents him?

In speaking, we represent all objects as standing in one of these relations, called personal relations, or persons.

The speaker is the first person.

The one spoken to is the second person.

The one spoken of is the third person.

Pronouns which point out these three relations, are called Personal Pronouns.

Name the nouns and pronouns in the following examples, and tell which of the three persons they represent:—

I have seen your father; he is very ill.

Well, Fanny, when do you leave school.

Poor boy! he is much to be pitied.

In the last example, what would have been the pronoun, if, instead of *boy*, it had been *boys*? *Ans.* — *They*. Thus:—

Poor boys! *they* are much to be pitied.

Then—

The pronoun changes when the number of the noun changes, so that both may be of the same number.

Write a subject for each of these three sentences:

— am speaking.

— are reading.

— is writing.

Can you put a *noun* for the first subject? Can you use the same form of the verb with the three different persons? Then—

The verb changes when the person of the subject changes.

Point out the nouns and pronouns in these examples. Tell the number and person of each:—

Philip is flying a kite.

Do you see the old farm house?

I am very fond of mignonette.

Carroll is an excellent carpenter; he is constantly employed.

LESSON XVIII.

How can you improve the following sentence:—
When Henry went to school, *Henry* told the Teacher
that *Henry* wished to study Geography *Ans.*—By
using *he* instead of the words in italics.

Suppose the sentence were, When Anna went to
school, &c., how could you avoid the repetition of
Anna? *Ans.*—By using *she*?

What kind of words are *he* and *she*? Why?

Why do you use *she* rather than *he*? *Ans.*—
Because Anna is the name of a female.

What is Henry the name of? *Ans.*—A male.

What word is repeated in the following sentence:

Louisa bought a book, and when she had examined the pic-
tures in the book, she began to read the book.

What word would you use to avoid the repetition
of "book?" *Ans.*—The pronoun "it."

Why do we use "it" rather than "he" or "she?"
Ans.—Because *book* is the name of neither a male nor
a female. Then—

*We use the pronoun "he" for the name of a male,
"she" for the name of a female, and "it" for the
name of an object that is neither male nor female.*

Tell what pronouns we must use for each of the
following nouns:—

Gertrude, boy, river, Allen, cow, letter, Alfred.

*We use these different pronouns to distinguish the
gender of the nouns.*

*Nouns and pronouns, then, may have three genders :
The Masculine, for the names of males.*

The Feminine, for the names of females.

The Neuter (neither), for the names of objects neither male nor female.

Tell the gender of the following nouns, and use a pronoun to represent each in the third person :—

Poet, stone, mother, Florence, Paul, table, carpet.

What is the gender of ‘poet’ ? Of ‘he’ ?

What is the gender of ‘Florence’ ? Of ‘she’ ?

What is the gender of ‘carpet’ ? Of ‘it’ ?

Then —

The pronoun agrees in gender with the noun for which it stands.

Tell the nouns and pronouns in the following examples. What kind of noun ? Of pronoun ? What person ? What number ? What gender ?

Pigeons fly in such immense flocks, that they often break down the branches of the trees, when they alight.

Virginia sketches beautifully ; she studies nature.

John is so lame that he is obliged to ride to school.

That engraving is very fine ; I intend to buy it.

Have you concluded to purchase that house ?

We must visit Niagara Falls.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—Write sentences containing the following pronouns :—

I, you, he, she, it, we, they, and ye.

Represent the following nouns by appropriate pronouns :—

Arnold, Cornelia, grandfather, hens, chisel, parents.

LESSON XIX.

Henry is reading.

What pronoun may we use instead of Henry?

Why *he* rather than *she* or *it*? Than *I* or *you*?
Than *they*?

Tell the person, number, and gender of Henry.

If either of these should change, could you use *he*?

Then—

The pronoun must agree with the noun for which it stands, in person, number, and gender.

Now change the place of Henry, and let it stand after a verb or after a preposition, thus:—

John saw Henry.

Mary spoke to Henry.

Is the person, number, or gender of Henry changed?
Must we, then, use 'he' for it as before? *Ans.*—
No; for then we should say—

John saw *he*.

Mary spoke to *he*.

What should we use? *Ans.*—Him.

Then—

The pronoun is changed when the noun changes its relation to the other words in the sentence.

A noun placed before a verb, answering the question 'who?' or 'what?' is in the relation of subject, and is said to be in the Nominative case.

A noun placed after a verb or a preposition, an-

swering the question ‘whom?’ or ‘what?’ is in the relation of object, and is said to be in the Objective case.

Eben’s book is torn.

What word shows *whose* book is torn? *Ans.* — Eben’s.

What mark is used before the “s” in Eben’s? *Ans.* — An apostrophe.

What pronoun can you put in place of Eben’s? *Ans.* — *His*; as,

His book is torn.

When a noun or pronoun shows possession, or “*whose*” anything is, it is in the Possessive case.

A noun or pronoun may have three cases: the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

What is the case of a noun or a pronoun, when it stands as the subject? When it stands as the object? When it shows possession?

Give the case of the following nouns and pronouns:

Harriet is in her garden.

Jungles abound in Hindostan.

Merton’s dog has bitten a child.

I bought the pencils at Clark’s.

I have read Bancroft’s History of the United States.

How many different kinds of words are there? *Ans.* — Eight.

What are they? *Ans.* — The Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

These different kinds of words are called Parts of Speech.

To parse a word, is to tell what part of speech it is, and all that belongs to it. Thus —

To parse a Noun or Pronoun, is to tell —

1. The Part of Speech.
2. What kind.
3. What person.
4. What number.
5. What gender.
6. What case.

Analyze the following sentences, and then parse the nouns and pronouns :—

Peace has been declared.

Isabella is reading Tennyson's poems.

Richard has broken the lark's wing.

The fire burns brightly.

This cart has lost its wheel.

My father reproved him.

I will go with you.

LESSON XX.

"I found —— in the orchard."

Is the meaning complete in this example?

Fill the blank with a noun —

1. In the masculine gender.
2. In the feminine gender.
3. In the neuter gender.

What pronouns can you use for these nouns?

What is the case of each?

Can you use the Nominative case? Try it.

A verb which takes the objective case immediately after it, is called a Transitive verb.

What kind of verb is "found?"

See if you can put the pronouns *him* or *her* in the blanks of the following examples:

The sun rises —.

The snow falls —.

Does it make sense to say, "The sun rises *him*;"
"The snow falls *her*?"

A verb which does not take an objective case immediately after it, is called an Intransitive verb.

What kind of verbs are "rises" and "falls"?

See which of these blanks can be filled with *him*,
her, or *it*:

The birds eat —.

The trees bend —.

We found —.

The stars set —.

Which of the verbs above are transitive? Which
are intransitive? How can you tell?

George struck William.

What kind of verb is "struck?" Why? What
case is "William?" What case is "George?"

Which one is the actor? Which one receives the
action? What pronoun represents each? Which is
the subject of the sentence, — the actor, or receiver
of the action?

William was struck by George.

Does the sentence mean the same as before? Is the actor the same? Is the receiver of the action the same? Now, will the same pronouns represent George and William as before? Which is the subject now, the actor, or the receiver of the action? Then—

When the object becomes the subject, its case is changed.

What was the verb when the actor was the subject? What is it now? Then—

The verb changes its form when the object becomes the subject.

When the actor is the subject, the form of the verb is called the Active voice.

When the receiver of the action is the subject, the form is called the Passive voice.

Can intransitive verbs have a passive voice? *Ans.* —No; because they have no object, or receiver of the action.

Point out the transitive and the intransitive verbs in the following examples:—

The owl sits upon the tree.

Gertrude has finished her picture.

The pears were injured by the frost.

The sun shines upon the water.

The fire has scorched the grass.

The robin is feeding her young.

Change the sentences containing the *Transitive* verbs, thus:—

The committee visited the school.

The school was visited by the committee.

Tell, of each sentence, whether it is in the active or the passive voice.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—Fill the following blanks, and tell whether the verbs inserted are transitive or intransitive :—

Josephine — ripe grapes.

The sun — in the west.

He — me to Boston.

Her father — by a fall.

The ambassador — for Liverpool.

Little Willie — down stairs.

Write six sentences — two having transitive verbs in the Active voice, two in the Passive voice, and two with intransitive verbs.

LESSON XXI.

The boy — playing.

Is anything *asserted* or *declared* in this example ? Put in a word to declare that the boy is *actually* playing.

What word have you inserted ? *Ans.* — “*Is.*”

Now fill the blank so as to assert, not that he is actually playing, but that he may, perhaps, be playing.

Then the verb changes its form, when the action which is asserted is not real, or actual.

Tell which of the following verbs assert an action as *actually taking place* :—

- The rain is falling.
- The wind may blow.
- The dog is barking at the cat.
- The horse can draw the wagon.
- Arthur must study Geography.

When a verb asserts an action as actually taking place, it is in the Indicative mode.

When it asserts what may, can, or must take place, it is in the Potential mode.

Tell the mode of the verbs above.

Jane will come, if it does not rain.

Is it certain that Jane will come?

On what *condition* will she come? *Ans.*—On the condition that it does not rain.

When a verb, as "does rain," asserts a condition for another event, it is in the Subjunctive mode.

Fill the following blanks with verbs that show a condition for the preceding events :—

I will play with Charles, if mother — — me.

You can learn this lesson, if you — —.

What is the mode of each verb which you insert?

Edward, bring me your slate.

What is Edward *commanded* to do? *Ans.*—To bring his slate.

When a verb asserts a command, or an entreaty, it is in the Imperative mode.

Fill these blanks :—

Richard, —— your lesson.

Sarah, —— here.

Children, —— your parents.

What is the mode of these verbs ?

"To walk in the garden."

Is anything asserted here ?

Does "to walk" express action ?

The verb with "to" placed before it, is said to be in this Infinitive mode. It does not assert anything.

Tell the mode of the following verbs :—

The boy may catch a fish.

The tree is broken by the wind.

Come, Edmund, play with me.

I will go, if you will explain my lesson.

The leaves begin to fall.

Which are transitive ? Which are intransitive ?
Which are in the active voice ? Which in the passive ?

LESSON XXII.

Fill the following blank with a word to declare what Maria does now :—

Maria —— studying her lesson now.

What kind of word have you inserted ? Can there be a sentence without a verb ? What other form could you give to the predicate so as to use but one word instead of "is studying ?" [See Lesson IX.]

Now fill the blank with a word to declare what Maria did *yesterday* :—

Maria — studying her lesson *yesterday*.

What word have you now inserted? Is it the same word as before? Why do you use a different word in this case? *Ans.*—Because the *time* of the action is changed from *now* to *yesterday*. Then —

The verb changes when the time of the action changes.

Make the same change of time, and express the predicate in one word.

What is the verb?

Now fill the blank so as to declare what Maria will do *to-morrow* :—

Maria — studying her lesson *to-morrow*.

What words have you inserted now? Are they different from the preceding? Why have you changed the verb?

When a verb shows what is taking place now, or at the time of speaking, it denotes present time, and is in the Present tense.

When it shows what took place in past time, it is in the Past tense.

When it shows what will take place in future time, it is in the Future tense.

In what tense is “*is studying*,” or “*studies*”?

In what tense is “*was studying*,” or “*studied*”?

In what tense is “*will be studying*,” or “*will study*”?

There are three divisions of time—Present, Past, and Future.

Tell to which division each of the following verbs belongs:—

- The wind blew off Kate’s bonnet.
- The sun is rising over the lake.
- The boys will enjoy the fine skating.
- The fox was caught by the hounds.
- Cæsar crossed the Rubicon.
- The leaves will soon be falling.

When we say “birds sing,” does it mean the birds are really singing now, or only that they do sing sometimes?

If they were actually singing at this moment, what would you say? *Ans.—The birds are singing.*

Is the singing completed, or is it going on? Should we say “The birds *have sung* yesterday,” or “The birds *have sung* to-day?” *Ans.—The birds have sung to-day.*

Does “to-day” denote present or past time?

Then, what is the tense of “have sung”? Is the act of singing completed, or is it going on? Then—

The verb changes in order to show different states of the act; that is, whether it is going on, or whether it is completed. When the verb shows what is done sometimes, or what is accustomed to be done, it takes the common form; as, Trees grow.

When the verb shows what is going on, but not yet

finished, it takes the progressive form; as, The trees are growing.

When the verb shows what is finished, or completed, it takes the form called the Perfect; as, The trees have grown.

He speaks.

He spoke.

He will speak.

What is the *form* of the verb in the above examples? What is the *time* indicated by each verb?

He is speaking.

He was speaking.

He will be speaking.

What is now the *form* of the verb? Give the *time* indicated in each example.

He has spoken.

He had spoken.

He will have spoken.

What is the *form* of the verb in these examples? What *time* is indicated by each verb?

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—Write, as above, the Present, Past, and Future of the verbs *drive*, *rain*, and *fly*, in the common form—in the progressive form—in the perfect.

Write the Past and Perfect tenses to each of the following verbs. Thus—

Present tense.

Write.

Play.

Sing.

Past tense.

Wrote.

—.

—.

Perfect tense.

Have written.

—.

—.

<i>Present tense.</i>	<i>Past tense.</i>	<i>Perfect tense.</i>
Invite.	—.	—.
Love.	—.	—.
Read.	—.	—.
Enjoy.	—.	—.

LESSON XXIII

In the exercise for the slate, how many of the past tenses end in *ed*? How do the past tenses of the others end? Give the past tenses of *grieve*, *sit*, *help*, and tell which end in *ed*.

How many words are used to form the Perfect tense of each verb? What one word is used in each Perfect tense? *Ans.—Have.*

The word which unites with "have," to form the Perfect tense, is called the Past Participle.

How can you find the past participle of a verb? *Ans.—By forming the Perfect tense.*

Form the Perfect tenses of *join*, *rise*, *believe*, *see*, *vote*, *give*, and tell the Past Participles.

Which of the Past Participles end in *ed*?

*When the Past tense and Past Participle of a verb are formed by adding "ed" * to the Present tense, the verb is called Regular.*

When the Past tense and Past Participle of a verb are not formed by adding "ed" to the Present, the verb is called Irregular.

* The final *e* of the present is dropped before the addition is made; as, *Love*, *lov-ed*.

Tell which of the following verbs are regular, and which are irregular:—

Forrester has sold his horse.
The water is wearing the rock.
The maple produces sugar.
Amy loves her little sister.
Summer and winter fail not.
He has given liberally to the poor.

LESSON XXIV.

He is walking.

What is the subject of this sentence?

Tell its person, number, gender, and case.

Can you write the sentence correctly, and change the *case* of the subject to the possessive or objective?
Ans.—No; for then it would be “*his*” or “*him*” is walking.

The subject of a sentence must always be in the Nominative case.

Can you write the sentence correctly and change the *gender* of the subject? *Ans.*—Yes; for then it would be, “She is walking,” or “It is walking.”

Can you write the sentence correctly and change the *person* of the subject without changing any other word? *Ans.*—No; for then it would be, “I is walking,” or “You is walking;” it should be, I am walking,” “You are walking.”

These different forms, “am,” “are,” and “is,” represent the persons of the verb; “am” is the first

person;" "are" is the second person; and "is" is the third person.

Can you write the sentence correctly, and change the *number* of the subject, without changing any other word? *Ans.*—No; for then it would be, "They is walking." It should be, "They are walking."

These different forms, "is" and "are," represent the number of the verb.

The verb must always agree with the subject in number and person.

In the following examples, parse the subjects, and point out the verbs, telling what *kind*, what *mode*, what *tense*, what *person* and *number*.

Gratitude is the memory of the heart.

The book was written by my father.

The heavens declare the glory of God.

If it rains, you will be disappointed.

I have read Macaulay's History.

Frank had been learning to write.

We are intending to go to Europe.

He had gone before you came.

Children, obey your parents.

Listen to the morning song of the birds.

In parsing a verb, tell —

1. What it is.
2. What form, Regular or Irregular.
3. What kind, Transitive or Intransitive.
4. What voice.
5. What mode.
6. What tense.
7. What person.
8. What number.

LESSON XXV.

Edward and Arthur are tall.

What quality belongs to both ?

Is it said that they are equally tall ?

How can we ascertain whether they are equally tall ? *Ans.*—By comparing them.

Are these pencils equally long ?

Are these apples equally large

What have I just compared ?

What quality belongs to the pencils ?

What quality belongs to the apples ?

When we compare objects, we make use of some quality belonging to each, as a means of comparison.

Edward is as tall as Arthur.

Are Edward and Arthur compared in this example ? In comparing them, what quality do we use ? What word is placed before and after the adjective *tall* ? Is the meaning the same when Arthur is placed at the beginning of the sentence ? Are they equally tall ?

To show that two objects, when compared, have the same degree of a quality, we place "as" before and after the adjective.

James is taller than Arthur.

Arthur is more industrious than Edward.

Edward is less industrious than Arthur.

Who are compared in the first example ? What quality is employed in the comparison ? Does the

quality belong equally to each? Which has the greater degree of it? Can you change the place of James and Arthur without changing the meaning? What syllable is added to tall?

Who are compared in the second and third examples?

What quality is employed in the comparison? Is the quality possessed by each in an equal degree? Who has the greater degree? Have we changed the place of Edward and Arthur without changing the meaning? What word is added to "industrious" in each?

To show that two objects, when compared, have different degrees of a quality, we either add "er" to the adjective, or place "more" or "less" before it.

Harvey is the tallest of all the boys in school.

Murray is the most punctual of all the boys in school.

Richard is the least studious of all the boys in school.

In these examples, with whom are Harvey, Murray, and Richard compared? *Ans.* — With all the boys in school.

What qualities are employed? Do these qualities belong equally to all? Who has the highest or lowest degree of each quality? What syllable do you add to "tall"? What word is added to "punctual"? What to "studious"?

To show that one of several objects, referred to, when compared, has the highest or lowest degree of a quality, we either add "est" to the adjective, or place "most" or "least" before it.

These changes of the adjective are called Degrees of Comparison.

There are three degrees, namely :—

1. The *Positive*; as, tall, careful.
2. The *Comparative*; as taller, more careful, less careful.
3. The *Superlative*; as, tallest, most careful, least careful.

Give the degree of each of the following adjectives :

She is the merriest child I ever saw.

A bright light is painful to the eyes.

This road is muddier than the other.

Harold is more unhappy than his brother.

This is the most peaceful valley in the land.

Our French lessons are now less difficult.

NOTE.—The Teacher may here introduce, if he thinks proper, the irregular comparison of adjectives, and the comparison of adverbs.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—Fill the following blanks with adjectives, and tell the degree of each :—

Honesty is the — policy.

Be — of your health.

Be not — in well-doing.

Gerald is the — of my sons.

Constance is — than Augusta.

The — toys are bought here.

Write the comparatives and superlatives for the following adjectives :—

Wise, warm, lovely, noble, beautiful, careless, mischievous.

In which examples do you add “er” and “est”?

In which do you add “more” and “most,” or “less”?

and “*least*”? Which words have but one syllable? Which have more than one?

Words of one syllable usually form their Comparative and Superlative degrees by adding “er” to the positive for the former, and “est” for the latter.

Words of two or more syllables usually form their Comparative and Superlative degrees by prefixing “more” or “less” to the positive for the former, and “most” or “least” for the latter.

GENERAL EXERCISE.—Analyse the following sentences, and parse the words:—

Dreams have their variety.

You will be sure of a reward.

The sisters charm with their lovely songs.

A blunder often makes a precedent.

Hope is the blossom of happiness.

The blossoms are falling from the trees.

The wind sighs plaintively around her grave.

The raging tempest swept away everything in its path.

Heaven opened wide her golden gates.

The wisest method has been pursued.

The children were studying their lesson in Arithmetic.

The Mexicans were defeated at Buena Vista.

The buds are swelling rapidly.

The vessel had not arrived yesterday.

Mabel is the younger of the two ~~children~~.

PART II.

LESSON XXVI.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the English language.

Grammar is divided into four parts:—Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

Orthography treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

Etymology treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

Syntax treats of the structure of sentences.

Prosody treats of the laws of versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON XXVII.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

What is English Grammar? How is it divided? Of what does Orthography treat? Of what does Etymology treat? Of what does Syntax treat? Of what does Prosody treat?

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

An elementary sound is the simplest sound in the language; as, *a, e, b, k*.

NOTE.—These sounds, about forty in number, can be appreciated only when represented to the ear. Let the learner be taught to utter them distinctly, and he will then understand the following classification:

These sounds are divided into three classes:—*vocals, subvocals, and aspirates*.

The *vocals* consist of pure tone only; as, *a, e, i, o, u*.

The *subvocals* consist of tone united with breath; as, *b, d, l, m, n, r*.

The *aspirates* consist of pure breath only; as, *p, t, k, f*.

EXERCISE.—The following words contain the different elementary sounds in the language. Utter first the word, and then the element, printed in *Italics*.

Vocals.—*N-a-me, f-a-r, b-a-ll, a-t; m-e, m-e-t; f-i-ne, p-i-n; s-o-lด, m-o-ve, n-o-t; m-u-te, p-u-ll, c-u-p; f-o-u-nd.*

Subvocals.—*B-at, d-og, g-o, j-oy, l-if-e, m-an, n-o, so-ng, ba-r, th-ose, v-oice, w-ise, y-es, z-one, a-zure.*

Aspirates.—*F-aith, h-at, ar-k, p-in-e, s-un, t-ake, th-ink, sh-one, ch-ur-ch, wh-en.*

What is an elementary sound? How many elementary sounds are there? Into what classes are the elementary sounds divided? What are the *vocals*? What are the *subvocals*? What are the *aspirates*?

In the following examples, point out —

Five Vocals.—Lake, life, pet, sound, grove.

Six Subvocals.—Goat, boy, wife, star, jug, note.

Five Aspirates.—Hound, kite, thing, sing, where.

LESSON XXVIII.

LETTERS.

A letter is a character used to represent an elementary sound.

The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters — A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

Those letters which represent vowels are called vowels. They are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates are called consonants.

The consonants are —

Subvocals—*b*, *d*, *g*, *j*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *v*, *z*.

Aspirates—*f*, *h*, *k*, *c*, *q*, *p*, *t*, *s*.

X is a subvocal when it is equivalent to *gs*, as in *exist*; and an aspirate, when it is equivalent to *ks*, as in *wax*.

W and Y are consonants (subvocals) when they precede a vowel in the same syllable; as, *wine*, *wet*, *yes*, *yew*. In all other cases they are vowels; as, *few*, *lovely*, *low*, *boy*.

What is a letter? How many letters are there in the English alphabet? Name them. What are vowels? Name them. What are consonants? Name them.

Equivalents are those letters, or combinations of letters which represent the same sound; as, n-a-me, g-ay, th-ey, v-ain, g-au-ge.

A *variable* letter is one which represents several different sounds; as, f-a-me, f-a-r, f-a-t, h-a-ll, wh-a-t, li-a-r.

A *silent* letter is one which has no sound; as, pe-a-rl, tho-ugh.

EXERCISE.—Tell which letters are vowels, and which are consonants, in the following words:—

Name, war, come, peace, tree, fish, good, live, old, sad, young, wine, said, yet, win, new, gay, day.

Tell which of the following letters represent vocals, which subvocals, and which aspirates:—

t, r, v, a, f, g, m, c, d, k, p, o, w, s, h, y, x, l, e, j.

Give the sounds of *a* in name, war, bat, cabbage, fare, all, what; of *e* in metc, met, they, there, her; of *i* in pine, pin, sir; of *u* in mute, put, but, fur; of *c* in mice, sacrifice, cat; of *f* in fare, of; of *g* in give, go, gem, George; of *r* in read, rude, bar, far; of *s* in sit, sin, was, does, measure, pleasure; of *x* in wax, example.

LESSON XXIX.

COMBINATIONS OF LETTERS.

Two or more vowels may unite; as, s-ou-nd, b-uoy.

Two or more consonants may unite; as, bl-e-nd, thr-ee.

What are equivalents? Give examples. What is a variable letter? Give examples. What is a silent letter? Give examples. In what three ways may sounds be united?

A consonant may unite with a vowel; as, *an*, *no*, *did*, *call*.

A *diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one syllable; as, *ou* in sound, *oi* in voice.

A *proper diphthong* is one in which both vowels are sounded; as, *ou* in *thou*.

An *improper diphthong* is one in which one of the vowels is silent; as, *a* in *heat*.

A *tripthong* is the union of three vowels in one syllable; as, *eau* in *beauty*.

A *proper triphthong* is one in which the three vowels are sounded; as, *uoy*, in *büoy*.

An *improper triphthong* is one in which one or two of the vowels are silent; as the *ea* in *beauty*, the *ie* in *adieu*.

EXERCISE.—Point out the combinations in the following words. Tell whether the diphthongs and triphthongs are proper or improper:—

Fear, pear, voice, sound, pierce, receive, Europe, people, view, adieu, beauty, though, shine, when, whip, chip, phrase, chaise, architect, motion, partial, option, session.

LESSON XXX.

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

A *syllable* is a letter or a combination of letters uttered with one impulse of the voice; as, *mat*, *matter*, *ma-te-ri-al*.

What is a diphthong? What is a proper diphthong? What is an improper diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is a proper triphthong? What is an improper triphthong? What is a syllable?

The *essential* part of a syllable is a vowel.

NOTE.—By vowel is here meant a *vowel-sound*, whether represented by a single vowel, a diphthong, or a triphthong.

A syllable may consist—

1. Of a vowel; as, *a*-cre, *ei*-ther.
2. Of a vowel with one or more consonants prefixed; as, *ba*-sis, *bri*-er, *three*, *phthi*-sis.
3. Of a vowel with one or more consonants affixed; as, *an*, *elf*, *inter-ests*, *earths*.
4. Of a vowel with one or more consonants both prefixed and affixed; as, *n-oo-n*, *tr-u-th*, *thr-u-sts*.

A *word* consists of one syllable alone, or of two or more syllables united; as, *faith*, *faith-ful*.

A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable*; as, *pen*, *boy*, *care*.

A word of two syllables is called a *dissyllable*; as, *nature*, *care-ful*.

A word of three syllables is called a *trisyllable*; as, *nat-u-ral*, *care-ful-ness*.

A word of four or more syllables is called a *polysyllable*; as, *un-nat-u-ral*, *con-sci-er-tious-ness*.

A word in no way derived from another, is a *primitive* word; as, *form*, *watch*.

A word formed by joining to a primitive some letter or syllable to modify its meaning, is a *derivative* word; as, *re-form*, *watch-ful*.

What is the essential part of a syllable? Of what may a syllable consist? What is a word? What is a monosyllable? What is a dissyllable? What is a word of three syllables called? What is a polysyllable? What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word?

A word formed by uniting two or more simple words, is called a *compound* word; as, *watchman*, *father-in-law*.

EXERCISE FOR THE SLATE.—Divide the following words into syllables:—

Detection, inability, commotion, though, relate, unpremeditated, thoughtful.

Tell which of the following words are *primitive*, which *derivative*, and which *compound*:—

Bright, fair, playful, joyless, income, book-store, cloud-capped, ink, form, uniform, housetop, dreary.

Form derivative words from the following primitives, and draw a line under the added syllable or letter:—

Hope, fear, peer, weak, form, grace, poet, weep.

Form compound words by joining some appropriate word to each of the following:—

Chest, bank, fire, weed, toll, work, land, busy.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON XXXI.

DEFINITIONS.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

A word is the sign of an idea, and is either spoken or written.

What is a compound word? Of what does Etymology treat?
What is a word?

Words are divided into eight classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

The Parts of Speech are, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

A *noun* is the name of an object ; as, *peach*, *Frank*, *Salem*.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun or pronoun ; as, *wise*, *sweet*, *this*.

A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun ; as, *I*, *he*, *who*.

A *verb* is a word which expresses being, action, or state ; as, *be*, *run*, *sleep*, *is written*.

An *adverb* is used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb ; as, *slowly*, *first*, *far*.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word ; as, *above*, *with*, *into*.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect either words, phrases, or propositions ; as, *and*, *but*, *or*.

The *interjection* is used to express some emotion of the mind ; as, *O!* *alas!* *ah!*

How are words divided ? How many parts of speech are there ? What are they ? What is a noun ? An adjective ? A pronoun ? A verb ? What is an adverb ? What is a preposition ? What is a conjunction ? What is an interjection ?

LESSON XXXII.

NOUNS.

A noun is the name of an object; as, *house, tree, Boston, goodness*.

REMARK 1. The word “*object*” is here used to denote every species of existence, whether material or immaterial.

REM. 2. The *name* of anything which has, or may be supposed to have an independent existence, is a noun. Hence, the name of a quality, taken alone, or apart from any object, is a noun; as, *brightness, smoothness*.

Nouns are divided into two classes, *Proper* and *Common*.

A *proper* noun is the name of an individual object; as, *James, Erie*.

A *common* noun is the name which applies to each individual of a class of objects; as, *man, boy, house*.

REM. Under the head of common nouns are commonly reckoned *Collective, Abstract, and Verbal* nouns.

A *collective* noun is one which, in the singular, denotes more than one object; as, *army, family, flock*.

An *abstract* noun is the name of a *quality* or an *action*, considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as, *goodness, virtue, wisdom, movement*.

A *verbal* noun is a *participle* used as a noun; as, “He was convicted of *stealing*.”

What is a noun? What does the word “*object*” denote? When is the name of a quality a noun? How many classes of nouns are there? What is a proper noun? What is a common noun? What is a collective noun? What is an abstract noun? What is a verbal noun?

Any phrase or group of words used to represent an idea which can be considered alone, is of the nature of a noun or substantive; as, "*To be good is to be happy.*"

EXERCISE. (1.)

Select the nouns from the following examples:—

Beattie, the son of a Scottish farmer, was educated at the University of Aberdeen.

The father of Michael Bruce was a weaver in Scotland.

Cyprus is an island in the Mediterranean.

Tell which of the nouns above are common, and which are proper. Why?

Write a sentence containing two common and two proper nouns.

EXERCISE. (2.) *

Point out the collective, abstract, and verbal nouns in the following examples:—

The hunters discovered a large herd of buffaloes.

The school was dismissed at twelve o'clock.

His greatness was excelled only by his goodness.

Lying is a degrading vice.

We should be forward in aiding the weak.

Change the following adjectives into abstract nouns:

Faithful, hopeful, rough, brittle, sour, better.

* Exercises marked (2) are to be omitted the first time going through the book.

LESSON XXXIII.

To nouns belong *Person*, *Number*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

PERSON.

Person is that property of a noun or pronoun which shows its relation to the speaker.

REM. A noun or pronoun must represent either the *speaker* himself, the person *spoken to* by the speaker, or the person or thing *spoken of* by the speaker. Hence the three relations to the speaker, called person.

There are three persons — the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

The *first* person denotes the speaker ; as, “*I*, the *commander*, issue this general order.”

The *second* person denotes the person spoken to ; as, “*Children*, obey your parents.”

The *third* person denotes the person or thing spoken of ; as, “*Thomas* did come.” “The *harvest* is abundant.”

EXERCISE.

Tell the person of the nouns and pronouns in the following examples :—

Nero was a tyrant.

Children, obey your parents.

The ferryman took us safely across the river.

Babylon, how art thou fallen !

Thou art the man.

My brothers delight in surf-bathing.

I, Paul, myself, beseech you.

What belong to nouns ? What is person ? What must a noun or pronoun represent ? How many persons are there ? What does the first person denote ? The second ? The third ?

LESSON XXXIV.

NUMBER.

Number is that property of a noun which distinguishes one object from more than one.

Nouns have two numbers: the *singular* and the *plural*.

The singular number denotes but one object; as, horse, river, mountain.

The plural number denotes more than one object; as, horses, rivers, mountains.

The plural of nouns is regularly formed —

1. By adding *s*, when the singular ends with a sound that can unite with *s*; as, *book, books; tree, trees*.

2. By adding *es*, when the singular ends with a sound that cannot unite with *s*; as, *box, boxes; church, churches*.

The plural of nouns is irregularly formed in various ways.

1. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* and add *es*; as, *fly, flies; berry, berries; body, bodies*. If preceded by a vowel, the *y* is not changed; as, *boy, boys; toy, toys; valley, valleys*.

2. Some nouns ending in *f* and *fe* change these terminations to *ve*, and add *s*; as, *leaf, leaves; loaf, loaves; wife, wives*. So also with *calf, half, sheaf, shelf, life, thief, wharf, wolf, elf, and knife*. Other nouns in *f* and *fe* form the plural regularly; as, *gulf, gulfs; roof, roofs; fife, fifes*.

What is number? How many numbers have nouns? What is the singular number? What is the plural? How is the plural of nouns regularly formed? Give the rule for nouns ending in *y*. In *f* and *fe*.

3. Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, add *es*; as, *potato, potatoes; cargo, cargoes*. If preceded by a vowel, *s* is added; as, *folio, folios; cameo, cameos*.

4. The following plurals are very irregular: — *Child, children; man, men; woman, women; brother, brothers, or brethren; mouse, mice; die, dice (dies, stamps); tooth, teeth; foot, feet; ox, oxen; goose, geese; penny, pence, or pennies.*

5. Proper nouns, most abstract nouns, and nouns denoting substance, have no plural; as, *Providence, goodness, wood, gold*. Sometimes, however, we say, “*the Stuarts*,” “*the Johnsons*.”

6. In compound words, if the principal word is placed first, it is varied to form the plural; as, *courts-martial, sons-in-law*; but if placed last, the final word is changed; as, *pailfuls, handfuls, &c.*

7. Letters, marks, and figures are pluralized by adding 's'; as, the *a's, the 9's, the +'s*.

8. Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *tongs, riches, scissors, oats, embers, ashes, bellows, drawers*.

9. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *dice, sheep, trout, dozen, swine, vermin, hose, yoke*.

10. Nouns derived from foreign languages retain their original plurals; as, *automaton, automata; axis, axes; bandit, banditti; beau, beaux; cherub, cherubim; focus, foci; memorandum, memoranda; nebula, nebulae; radius, radii; stratum, strata*.

EXERCISE. (1.)

Write the plural of the following nouns, and give the rule for the termination:—

Box, horse, glove, rose, torch, grass, oak, watch.

Give the rule for nouns ending in *o*. Name eight nouns which have very irregular plurals. What kind of nouns have no plural? Give the rule for compound words? What plurals take 's'? Give five nouns used only in the plural. Five alike in both numbers. Five plurals from foreign languages.

Fill the following blanks with nouns in the singular number :—

The _____ is a noble animal.

_____ is a virtue.

He has met his _____.

The sun shines upon the _____.

_____ is declared.

Fill the following blanks with plural nouns :—

_____ take to themselves wings.

The _____ are very lofty

The _____ were well attended.

Henry has lost his _____.

I am delighted with _____.

EXERCISE. (2.)

Give the plurals of the following nouns, with the rules for their formation :—

Lady, day, leaf, hoof, hero, ox, tooth, spoonful, x, solemn, focus, fox, star, ally, alley, sheep.

Fill the following blanks —

1. With proper nouns :—

_____ descended the Alps.

_____ crossed the Delaware.

I visited _____.

2. With collective, abstract, or verbal nouns :—

_____ on the water is pleasant.

The _____ was disbanded.

The _____ was scattered by the wolves.

_____ is a vice.

_____ goeth before a fall.

Our _____ depends on ourselves.

Give the number of each noun in the exercise.

LESSON XXXV.

GENDER.

Gender is the distinction of nouns in regard to sex.

There are three genders — the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*.

Nouns which denote *males*, are of the masculine gender; as, *man*, *king*, *hero*.

Nouns which denote *females*, are of the feminine gender; as, *woman*, *queen*, *heroine*.

Nouns which denote *objects* neither male nor female, are of the neuter gender; as, *tree*, *rock*, *paper*.

REM.—Some nouns denote *either* male or female; as, *parent*, *child*, *cousin*. These are said to be of the *common* gender; but as the gender must be either masculine or feminine, and may generally be determined by the connection, the distinction is scarcely necessary.

There are three methods of distinguishing the sexes:—

1. By using different words; as, *bachelor*, *maid*; *boy*, *girl*; *brother*, *sister*; *father*, *mother*.

2. By different terminations; as, *count*, *countess*; *actor*, *actress*; *administrator*, *administratrix*; *hero*, *heroine*.

3. By prefixes and suffixes; as, *land-lord*, *land-lady*; *gentleman*, *gentlewoman*; *he-goat*, *she-goat*; *man-servant*, *maid-servant*.

What is gender? How many genders are there? What nouns are of the masculine gender? Of the feminine? Of the neuter? What is said of the common gender? What three methods of distinguishing the sexes?

EXERCISE.

Tell the gender of the following nouns :—

Sailor, cap, lioness, captain, nun, widow, brother, sister, bridge, priest, wizard, countess.

Give the feminine of —

Man, abbot, hero, tiger, heir, prophet, male, widower, husband, host, master, king.

The masculine of —

Empress, songstress, mother, sister, actress.

Fill these blanks, the first two with common nouns in the masculine gender; the next two with proper nouns, one masculine and one feminine; the next two with neuter nouns :—

— is patient.

— reigns king of beasts.

— was a distinguished poet.

— entertained her guests with grace.

Ella has lost her —.

Harold is reading Cicero's —.

LESSON XXXVI.

CASE.

Case denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

There are three cases—the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

The *nominative* case is the simplest form of the

What is case? How many cases are there? What is the nominative case?

noun, and is commonly the subject of a proposition; as, *George* speaks; the *door* was shut.

The possessive case denotes the relation of property or possession; as, *David's* harp.

When a noun or pronoun follows a transitive verb, or a preposition, it is in the *objective* case; as, Thomas opened his knife; the bird sat on the *tree*.

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE.

The possessive singular of nouns is regularly formed by adding an apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to the nominative; as, *man's*, *Calvin's*.

When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added; as, *boys'*, *ladies'*. But the apostrophe and *s* are both added when it ends in any other letter; as, *men's*, *women's*, *brethren's*.

REM.—The possessive case is known by its form. But the forms of the nominative and objective are alike, and must be determined by their relation to other words.

DECLEMNION OF NOUNS.

The declension of a noun is its variation to denote number and case.

EXAMPLES.

1. Boy.

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i>	Boy.	Boys.
<i>Poss.</i>	Boy's.	Boys'.
<i>Obj.</i>	Boy.	Boys.

What is the possessive case? The objective? How is the possessive regularly formed? Give the rule for the possessive plural. Which case is known by its form? What is the declension of a noun? Decline *Boy*.

2. FLY.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Fly.	Flies.
<i>Poss.</i>	Fly's.	Flies'.
<i>Obj.</i>	Fly.	Flies.

3. JOHN.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	John.	wanting.
<i>Poss.</i>	John's.	—.
<i>Obj.</i>	John.	—.

MODEL FOR PARSING A NOUN.

“The dog barks.”

Dog is a (1) noun; it is the name of an object.

(2) common; it is the name of each individual of a class of objects.

(3) third person; it is spoken of.

(4) singular number; it denotes but one.

(5) masculine gender; it is the name of a male.

(6) nominative case; it is the subject of a proposition.

(7) Rule I. A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a proposition, must be in the nominative case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns in the following examples: *—

England was invaded by the Normans.

The rain descended.

The forests disappear.

I have seen Emily's pet fawn.

Decline *Fly*. *John*. Parse *dog* in the sentence, “The dog barks.”

* The rules may be omitted the first time going through.

Theodore's horse is lame.
Rollo went into the garden.
The mountains raise their heads.
Florence loved little Paul.
Rollo sat by his father's side

LESSON XXXVII.

ADJECTIVES.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify a noun; as, "a *good* scholar."

Adjectives are divided into two classes — *limiting* and *qualifying*.

A *limiting* adjective is used to define or restrict the meaning of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities; as, *the house*, *those men*.

A *qualifying* adjective is one which limits the meaning of a noun, by denoting some property or quality; as, "a *virtuous* man;" "a *large* tree."

REM. 1.—To this class of adjectives belong the participles which have the *signification* of the verb, and the *construction* of the adjective. When the participle is placed *before* the noun which it modifies, it is called a *participial adjective*; as, "*the rising sun*." When it is placed *after* the noun to which it relates, it is called a *participle*; as, "*the sun rising in the east*."

REM. 2.—Any phrase or group of words added to a noun to limit its application or restrict its meaning, is of the nature of an adjective; as, "The people of the *United States of America*."

What is an adjective? How are adjectives divided? What is a limiting adjective? What is a qualifying adjective? What is said of the participle?

Limiting adjectives are divided into three classes — *articles*, *pronominal adjectives*, and *numeral adjectives*.

The *articles* are *a* or *an*, and *the*.

The is called the *definite article*, because it points out some particular object; as, “*the sun*.”

A, or *an*, is called the *indefinite article*, because it does not point out any particular object; as, “*a pen*;” “*an orchard*.”

An is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound; “*a union*,” “*an hour*,” “*a ewer*,” “*an eagle*.”

Pronominal adjectives are those which, without the use of the article, may represent a noun when understood; as, “*This* (book) is mine; *that* is yours.”

REM.—The principal pronominal adjectives are:—This, that, these, those, former, latter, which, what, each, every, either, neither, some, one, none, any, all, such, much, both, few, first, last, little, many, own, same, several, sundry, enough.

Numeral adjectives are those which express number; as, *one, two, third, fourth*.

Numeral adjectives are divided into cardinal, which denote *how many*; as, *one, two, three, &c.*; and ordinal, which show *which one of a series*; as, *first, second, third, &c.*

EXERCISE.

Tell the *kind* of adjectives in the following sentences:—

These scholars are very studious.

Anne is reading Roman history.

I saw a large flock of birds.

Into what class are limiting adjectives divided? What are the articles? What is said of “*the*”? Of “*a*” or “*an*”? When is “*an*” used? When “*a*”? What are pronominal adjectives? What are the principal pronominal adjectives? What are numeral adjectives? How divided?

Two of the boys arrived punctually.
Dr. Kane explored the Arctic regions.
Albert took the first premium.
Few of the committee were present.
I am reading a very interesting book.

Fill the blanks in the following examples with adjectives, and tell the kind of each:—

— men sit at their doors.
The — wind breathes gently forth.
— events cast their shadows before.
The traveller crossed the — sea.
The nest contained — — robins.

LESSON XXXVIII.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

There are three degrees of comparison — the *positive*, the *comparative*, and *superlative*.

The *positive* simply denotes a quality without comparison; as, *righteous*, *pleasant*.

The *comparative* shows that one of two objects possesses a quality in a higher or lower degree than the other; as, "This tree is *taller* than that;" "Theodore is *less industrious* than his brother."

The *superlative* shows that one of several objects

How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the positive degree denote? The comparative? The superlative?

referred to, possesses a quality in the highest or lowest degree, when compared with all the rest; as, "The pine is the *tallest* tree in the grove;" "This boy is the *least studious* of all the scholars."

The comparative of monosyllables is regularly formed by adding *r*, or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est* to the positive; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*: *bold*, *bolder*, *boldest*.

The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable, is formed by prefixing *more* or *less*, and the superlative, by prefixing *most* or *least* to the positive; as, *industrious*, *more industrious*, *most industrious*; *dutiful*, *less dutiful*, *least dutiful*.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: —

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good.	Better.	Best.
Bad or ill.	Worse.	Worst.
Much or many.	More.	Most.
Little.	Less or lesser.	Least.
Far.	Farther.	Farthest.
Near.	Nearer.	Nearest or next.
Late.	Later.	Latest or last.
Old.	Older or elder.	Oldest or eldest.

EXERCISE.

Give the degree of comparison of the following adjectives: —

How are adjectives regularly compared? How are adjectives of more than one syllable usually compared? Compare good, bad, ill, much many, little, far, near, late, old.

Wild, colder, mildest, innocent, most comfortable, frail, least active.

Compare —

Brave, strong, honorable, useful, thrifty, considerable, serene.

MODEL FOR PARSING AN ADJECTIVE.

"The faithful man will be rewarded."

Faithful is (1) an *adjective*; it limits or qualifies a noun.

(2) *qualifying*; it denotes a quality.

(3) *positive degree*; it expresses quality without comparison—compared *faithful*, *more faithful*, *most faithful*.

(4) it belongs to "man."

(5) *Rule V.*—An adjective or a participle belongs to some noun or pronoun.

Parse the adjectives in the following examples:—

There is no prouder grave.

His deeds have rendered him immortal.

They toiled through the Syrian desert.

Solomon was the wisest of kings.

The breaking waves dashed high,
On a stern and rock-bound coast;
And the woods, against a stormy sky,
Their giant branches tossed.

Parse "faithful," as in the model.

LESSON XXXIX.

PRONOUNS.

A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun; as, "The farmer ploughs *his* field; *he* reaps *his* wheat, and gathers *it* into *his* barn."

Pronouns are divided into three classes—*personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*.

A *personal* pronoun is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the *first*, *second* or *third* person.

The personal pronouns are—

I, plural *we*, of the first person.

Thou, or *you*, plural *ye* or *you*, of the second person.

He, plural *they*, of the third person, masculine.

She, plural *they*, of the third person, feminine.

It, plural *they*, of the third person, neuter.

The compound personal pronouns are—

Myself, ourselves (first person); *thyself, yourselves* (second person); *himself, herself, itself, themselves* (third person).

To pronouns belong *Person, Number, Gender, and Case*.

What is a pronoun? How are they divided? What is a personal pronoun? Name the personal pronouns. Name the compound personal pronouns. What modifications belong to personal pronouns? Decline *I, thou, he, she, it*.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The personal pronouns are thus declined :—

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I.	We.
<i>Poss.</i>	My or mine.	Our or ours.
<i>Obj.</i>	Me.	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thou.	Ye or you.
<i>Poss.</i>	Thy or thine.	Your or yours.
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee.	You.

THIRD PERSON. *Masculine.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	His.	Their or theirs.
<i>Obj.</i>	Him.	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Feminine.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	She.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Her or hers.	Their or theirs.
<i>Obj.</i>	Her.	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Neuter.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	It.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Its.	Their or theirs.
<i>Obj.</i>	It.	Them.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself.	Ourselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	—.	—.
<i>Obj.</i>	Myself.	Ourselves.

SECOND PERSON.

*Singular.**Plural.**Nom.*

Thyself.

Yourselves.

Poss.

—.

—.

Obj.

Thyself.

Yourselves.

THIRD PERSON.

*Singular.**Plural.**Masculine.**Feminine.**Neuter.**Nom.*

Himself.

Herself.

Itself.

Poss.

—.

—.

—.

Themselves.

Obj.

Himself.

Herself.

Itself.

REM. 1.—Of the possessives, *my, thy, her, our, your, their*, are used when the noun is expressed; *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, and theirs*, when it is understood; and the latter must be changed to the former whenever the noun is supplied. “That book is *yours*; this is *mine*.” “That book is *your book*; this is *my book*.”

REM. 2.—When *mine, thine, &c.*, are used as in the above example, they seem to perform a double office; first, to represent the speaker, hearer, or person spoken of, as a possessor; and, secondly, like other limiting or qualifying words, when the noun is understood, to represent or stand for that noun, not as a pronoun does, but as an adjective. Thus we say, “*This [book] is an arithmetic; that [book] is a geography.*” “*The violent [persons] take it by force.*” “*Mine [my task] was an easy task.*” Properly, neither of the above words is a noun. The first three are adjectives used to limit the noun understood, which follows them, and the last a personal pronoun in the possessive case, used to limit the noun *task*, understood. If it is ever proper to say that *this, that, or violent* are used as nouns, it is equally so of the word *mine*, not in its pronominal, but in its adjective office.

When are *my, thy, &c.*, used? When *mine, thine, &c.*? Explain the use of *mine, thine, &c.*

MODEL FOR PARSING A PERSONAL PRONOUN.

"The boys have lost their boat."

Their is (1) a pronoun; it stands for a noun.

- (2) personal; it is used to represent a noun and tell its person.
- (3) it represents *boys* for its antecedent.
- (4) declined (sing.) *Nom.*, he; *poss.*, his; *obj.*, him; (plural) *Nom.*, they; *poss.*, their or theirs; *obj.*, them.
- (5) it is of the *third person, plural number, masculine gender*, because its antecedent is.
- (6) *Rule III.*—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.
- (7) *possessive case*, and limits boat.
- (8) *Rule VII.*—A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting possession, must be in the possessive case.

Parse the pronouns in the following examples:—

The king found himself in great distress.

Louisa has lost her gold pencil.

Arnold betrayed his country.

I wish to visit them.

We are going into the country.

Granville will bring it to me.

Hast thou a star to guide thy path?

Parse "their," as in the model.

LESSON XL.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

A *relative* pronoun is used both to represent a preceding noun called the *antecedent*, and to connect with it a dependent proposition; as, “Those *who* wish for favors, must assist others.”

The relatives are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

Who is used to represent persons; *which* and *what* to represent things; and *that* to represent both persons and things.

What is both an adjective and a relative; as, “He gave me *what* books I needed;—that is, “He gave me *those* books *which* I needed.”

REM.—*What* is both a relative pronoun and a limiting adjective, and is equivalent to *that* or *those*, *which*. When the antecedent is expressed, *what* should be parsed (1) as an adjective; (2) as a relative pronoun; as, “He gave me *what* books I wanted.” When the antecedent is omitted, the indefinite noun “things” may be supplied, and thus the case is always as above; or, it may be taken (1) as an adjective used as a noun; it is then itself the antecedent; (2) as a relative relating to itself as antecedent; as, “He gave me *what* I wanted.”

The compound relatives are *whoever*, *whosever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

What is a relative pronoun? What are the relatives? What are they severally used to represent? What is said of the relative “what”? To what is it equivalent when the noun is understood? How should it be parsed? Name the compound relatives.

The interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions. They are, *who*, *which*, and *what*.

The noun for which the interrogative stands is found in the answer; as, "Who came?" *Ans.—George.*

REM. 2.—*Which* and *what* commonly refer to *things*, while *who* always refers to *persons*. The former, when followed by a noun, are *interrogative adjectives*; as, "What lessons have we to-day?"

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Who.	Which.
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose.	Whose.
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.	Which.

What and *that* are not declined; *whoever* and *whichever*, *whosoever* and *whichsoever*, are declined like the simple pronouns *who* and *which*.

MODELS.

"The man *who* is attached to religion, may be relied on."

Who is (1) a *pronoun*; it takes the place of the noun *man*.

(2) *relative*; it represents the noun *man* as its antecedent, and connects with it the proposition "who is attached to religion."

(3) declined—*Nom.*, *who*; *poss.*, *whose*; *obj.*, *whom*.

(4) *third person, sing. number, masc. gender*. Rule III.

(5) *nominative case*, and is the subject of the proposition, "who is attached," &c. Rule I.

What are interrogative pronouns? Name them. Where is the noun for which the interrogative stands? When are *which* and *what* interrogative adjectives? Decline the pronouns *who* and *which*. What is said of the other relatives? Parse "who," as in the model.

"I gave him *what* he wanted."

What is (1) a *relative pronoun*, used also as an adjective.

- (2) as an *adjective*, it belongs to "things" understood, or may be used as the noun "things," and is equivalent to *those*. Rule V.
- (3) as a *relative*, it relates to "things," or to itself used as the noun "things," and is equivalent to *which*.
- (4) as *antecedent*, it is of the third person, plural number, neuter gender, objective case, and is the object of *gave*. Rule VIII.
- (5) as *relative*, it is of the third person, plural number, neuter gender (Rule III.), and is governed by *wanted*. Rule VIII.

NOTE.—These models, with a slight change, answer for the interrogative pronouns ?

EXERCISE. (1.)

Parse the pronouns in the following examples :-

My father, whom I loved, is dead.

He best can bear reproof, who merits praise.

Look at that beautiful butterfly, which is sporting so gaily in the sunshine.

The vessel in which I embarked, was wrecked.

I could not discover what he came for.

What have you done to him ?

Who have visited the panorama ?

The man that attacked you, is arrested.

EXERCISE. (2.)

REM.—"That" is a *relative* when *who*, *which*, or *whom* can be used in its place. It is an *adjective* when a noun can be placed after it; as, "That (glove) is mine." In all other cases it is a *conjunction*.

Parse "what." What remark upon the word "that?"

Tell what part of speech "that" is in the following examples:—

Give me that knife.

Do you like the horse that you bought?

The lawyer that I consulted, has left the city.

That is my eldest sister.

How large that melon is!

I think that Cornelia will go.

The strange man that Richard met, was a gipsy.

Eveline has gone to hear that celebrated singer.

Horace hopes that he shall enter college next year.

That picture that you admired, is sold.

I expect that that machine that you examined, will succeed.

Write two sentences containing "that" as a relative; two, as an adjective; and two, as a conjunction.

LESSON XLI.

VERBS.—CLASSES OF VERBS.

A *verb* is a word which expresses being, action, or state; as, *be*, *read*, *sleep*, *is loved*.

The being, action, or state may be *affirmed*, *assumed*, or used *abstractly*; as, "George *runs*;" "George *running*;" "*to run*."

When a verb affirms something of a person or thing, it is called *finite*, being limited by the person and number of its subject. When it has no subject, it does not affirm, and is not limited; and is, hence, called the *infinitive*; as, "*to run*."

What is a verb? How may the *being*, *action*, or *state*, be used? What is a finite verb? What is an infinitive?

Verbs are divided, according to their *use*, into *transitive* and *intransitive*.

A *transitive* verb requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "James struck John."

An *intransitive* verb does not require the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The horse runs."

Verbs are divided, according to their *form*, into *regular* and *irregular*.

A *regular* verb is one which forms its past tense and past participle by adding "ed" * to the present tense; love, loved.

An *irregular* verb is one which does not form the past tense and past participle by the addition of ed to the present tense; as, see, saw, seen; write, wrote, written.

A *defective* verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting; as, may, might (participle wanting).

An *auxiliary* verb is one which is employed in the conjugation of other verbs; as, have, in "have loved."

An *impersonal* verb is one by which an action or

How are verbs divided according to their use? According to their form? What is a transitive verb? An intransitive? What is a regular verb? What is an irregular verb? A defective verb? An auxiliary? An impersonal verb?

* In every regular verb the past tense and past participle is invariably formed by adding ed to the present tense. But in such verbs as *love*, *move*, *live*, &c., the final e is dropped before the addition is made.

state is asserted independently of any particular subject; as, "it rains;" "it snows."

EXERCISE.

Point out the verbs in the following examples, and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive — regular or irregular :—

The twilight deepens.

I have dug the garden.

Gertrude is travelling in Europe.

Have you read Everett's oration?

The sexton rings the bell.

The lady invited her friends to visit her.

The little boy is very fond of his rocking-horse.

They act charades.

Milton wrote Paradise Lost.

Write five sentences containing *regular intransitive*, and five containing *irregular transitive* verbs.

LESSON XLII.

To verbs belong *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *number*, and *person*.

VOICE.

Voice is that form of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject *acts*, or is *acted upon*.

There are two voices—the *active* and the *passive*.

What modifications belong to verbs? What is voice? How many voices are there?

The *active* voice represents the subject as acting ; as, “John *struck* William.”

Here *John* is the subject, and is the one who *acts*.

The *passive* voice represents the subject as *acted upon* ; as, “William *was struck* by John.”

Here *William* is the subject, but he does not act ; he only *receives* the action put forth by *John*.

The passive form of the verb consists of the verb “*to be*” in its various modes and tenses, joined to the passive participle of the verb ; as, “It *is moved* ;” “It *was moved* ;” “It *will be moved*.”

REM. 1.—Intransitive verbs have no passive voice. Such verbs as “I *am come* ;” “Babylon *is fallen*,” are not passive, but intransitive, with a passive form.

REM. 2.—Some verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive when used with a causative signification, or with a noun of kindred meaning ; as, “They ran a train (caused it to run) at the rate of forty miles an hour ;” “He ran a *race* ;” “He sleeps the *sleep* of death.” These verbs may have a passive form ; as, “The train *was run*,” &c.

EXERCISE.

Point out the verbs in the following examples—tell which are transitive, and which are intransitive ; which are regular and which are irregular ; which are of the active and which of the passive voice :—

Abraham sat in the door of his tent. He lived to a good old age.

What is the active voice ? The passive ? Of what does the passive form of the verb consist ? What is said of intransitive verbs ? When are intransitive verbs used transitively ?

May I live the life of the righteous.

Chaucer was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Spenser was born in 1553.

The quality of mercy is not strained.

Ay, call it holy ground,

The soil where first they trod!

They have left unstained what there they found,

Freedom to worship God.

The stars were hidden by a thick cloud.

Another race has filled these populous borders.

The melancholy days are come.

The brightness of their smile was gone.

Group after group are gathering.

To prayer! to prayer! for the sun hath gone,

And the gathering darkness of night comes on.

LESSON XLIII.

MODE.

Mode is the manner in which the being, action, or state is asserted.

There are commonly reckoned five modes—the *indicative*, the *potential*, the *subjunctive*, the *imperative*, and the *infinitive*.

The *indicative* mode asserts a thing as *actually existing*; as, “James loves;” “William was struck.”

The *potential* mode asserts the *power, liberty, permission, necessity, or duty* of acting, or being in a

What is mode? How many modes are there? Define the *indicative* mode. The *potential*.

certain state ; as, "We *can sing* ; " "We *may write* ; " "*He must read* ; " "*They should obey* the law."

The *subjunctive mode* asserts a thing as *conditional* or *doubtful* ; as, "If he *leave me* ; " "Though he *slay me*."

The *imperative mode* asserts a *command*, an *entreaty*, or a *permission* ; as, "Write ; " "Go thou ; " "*Be admonished*."

The *infinitive mode* represents the action or state as an abstract noun ; as, "*To write* ; " "*To be seen*."

EXERCISE.

Give the modes of the following verbs :—

The gentle needs the strong to sustain it.

Lead on ! my orphan boy ! It may bring to thee a joy.

————— God hath spoken,

And the strong arm I leaned upon, is broken.

Thou wilt dream that the world is fair.

Canst thou bind the sweet influences of the Pleiades ?

Rend your hearts and not your garments.

Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.

PARTICIPLES.

A *participle* is a word having the signification of the verb, but the construction of the adjective ; as, "We found him *lying* on the ground." "Having written his letter, he sent it to his friend."

REM. 1.—The participle is so called from its participating in the properties of the verb and adjective.

Define the subjunctive mode. The imperative. The infinitive. What is a participle ? Why so called ?

REM. 2.—Sometimes the participle, with the signification of the verb, has the construction of the noun; as, "He was engaged in *reading* Shakspeare."

There are properly two participles—the *present* and the *perfect*; as, *reading*, *having read*; (*being*) *loved*, *having been loved*.

There are, however, three forms commonly called participles—the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*.

EXAMPLES.

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
<i>Active voice.</i>	Loving.	Loved.	Having loved.
<i>Passive voice.</i>	Being loved.	Loved.	Having been loved.

REM.—The form called the *past participle* was probably a passive participle, having always a passive meaning; as, "He has treasures *concealed*." "He has *concealed* treasures." This last form of expression has come eventually to assume an active meaning; as, "He has *concealed* his treasures." In this change of meaning, it has properly lost its character as a participle. It never partakes of the properties of an adjective, is purely verbal, being associated with *have* in the predicate, and belongs equally to transitive or intransitive verbs. Yet, alone it is not a verb, since it has no power to predicate. We cannot say, "He written;" "They eaten." It is used with *have*, to denote a completed act.

The *present active participle* denotes an action or state, present, and in progress at the time represented by the principal verb; as, "We find, found, or shall find him *sitting* in a chair."

What construction has the participle sometimes? How many participles are there? What three forms are commonly used? What is said of the past participle? What does the present active participle denote?

REM.—This participle always ends in *ing*, and has an active signification, and may be either transitive or intransitive. Like the other participles, it dates from the time of the principal verb, and not from the time of speaking.

The *present passive* participle denotes the reception of an act at the time represented by the principal verb; as, “He lives, lived, will live, *loved* by all.”

The *perfect active* participle denotes an action or state completed at the time represented by the principal verb; as, “*Having finished* his speech, he *sat* down.”

REM.—The actual time of the completion may be prior to the time denoted by the principal verb.

The *perfect passive* participle denotes the reception of an act, past and completed, at the time represented by the principal verb; as, “*Having been driven* from home, he enlisted in the army.”

The action or state expressed by the participle may be either *predicated* or *assumed*; as, “The horse *is running* through the street;” “The horse *running* through the street.”

EXERCISE (1.)

Give the active participles of—

Sit, lay, do, arrive, delay.

What remark upon the present active participle? What does it denote? What does the present passive participle denote? What does the perfect active participle denote? What remark? What does the perfect passive participle show? How may the participle be used?

Give the participles of—

Throw, write, destroy, obtain.

Classify the participles in the following examples:

Having crossed the river, I ascended the mountain.

Philip, running very fast, soon overtook his father.

Virginia died, lamented by all.

I saw Emily sitting by the window.

Having come to the shore, we moored our boat.

Honor lost, all is lost.

Having once been deceived, I could trust him no longer.

See the meadow, covered with flowers.

MODEL FOR PARSING A PARTICIPLE.

Having written my letter, I directed it carefully.

Having written is (1) a *participle*. Why? From write (write, wrote, written.)

(2) *perfect active*. Why? (Writing, written, having written.)

(3) belongs to "I." *Rule*.—An adjective or participle must belong to some noun or pronoun.

He is occupied in teaching German.

Teaching is a participial noun. As a *transitive participle*, it is limited by *German* as its object. As a *noun*, it is third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and completes the relation of the preposition *in*. *Rule*.—A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a proposition, is in the objective case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the following participles:—

Edith went on her way, singing merrily.

In keeping his commandments, there is great reward.

Parse "having written," as in the model. Parse "teaching."

Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again.

Being defeated many times, they finally retired.

Having taken the city, the General gave it up to pillage.

The grass having been mown, the hay-makers returned home.

Lawrence fell from the tree, in attempting to reach the nest.

Uttered not, yet comprehended,

Is the spirit's voiceless prayer ;

Soft rebukes with blessings ended,

Breathing from her lips of air.

I see them, escaped from these perils, pursuing their all but desperate undertaking, and landed at last on the ice-clad rocks of Plymouth.

LESSON XLIV.

TENSE.

Tense denotes the *time* of an action or event.

REM.—An action may be spoken of without reference to its continuance or its completion ; or it may be spoken of as incomplete or as finished. Hence, arise different *forms* of the verb, which must be distinguished in connection with the *time* of the action. Thus, in present time we may have, *I read*, *I am reading*, *I do read*, *I have read*. So in past time, we have, *I read*, *I was reading*, *I did read*, *I had read*.

There are three divisions of time — the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

Each division has two tenses — an *absolute* and a *relative*. There are, therefore, six tenses — three absolute and three relative.

What does tense denote? Why do we have different forms of the verb to denote the same time? How many divisions of time are there? How many tenses in each division?

EXAMPLES.

Absolute. I write. I wrote. I shall write.

Relative. I have written. I had written. I shall have written.

The tenses are — the *present*, the *present perfect*, the *past*, the *past perfect*, the *future*, the *future perfect*.

The *present* tense represents what takes place in present time; as, "I see," "I am seeing," "I do see," "I am seen."

REM.—Present time may mean the moment of speaking, or it may mean a period of time including the moment of speaking; as, *to-day*, *this week*, *this year*.

The *present perfect* tense represents a past event completed in present time; as, "I have seen," "I have been seeing," "I have been seen."

REM.—Present time in the *perfect* tense always embraces a period including the time of speaking and the time in which the act or event is completed. The completion of the act takes place prior to the time of speaking, but always *within* the time assumed as present, otherwise the past should be used.

The *past* tense represents what took place in time wholly past; as, "I saw," "I was seeing," "I did see," "I was seen."

The *past perfect* represents a past event as completed in time wholly past; as, "I had seen," "I had been seeing," "I had been seen."

Give the examples. Name the six tenses. What does the present tense represent? What do we mean by *present* time? What does the present perfect tense denote? What does present time in the *perfect* tense embrace? What does the past tense represent? The past perfect?

The *future* tense represents what will take place in future time; as, "I shall see," "I shall be seeing," "I shall be seen."

The *future perfect* tense represents an event as completed in future time; as, "I shall have seen," "I shall have been seeing," "I shall have been seen."

The indicative and subjunctive modes have six tenses each; the potential, four; the infinitive, two; and the imperative, one.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

Transitive verbs have four forms—the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive*, and the *passive*; "I love," "I do love," "I am loving," "I am loved."

Intransitive verbs may have three forms—the *common*, the *emphatic*, and the *progressive*; as, "I sit," "I do sit," "I am sitting."

The *common* form represents an act indefinitely, as a custom, or as completed without reference to its progress; as, "I love," "I loved," "I shall love," "I have loved."

The *emphatic* form represents an act with emphasis, or is used in asking questions; as, "I do write," "I did write," "Does he write?"

The *progressive* form represents an act in its progress, either as yet unfinished; as, "I am writing," or, as completed; as, "I have been writing."

The *passive* form represents the reception of a act; as, "I am loved," "I was loved," "I shall be loved."

What does the future tense represent? The future perfect? How many tenses has each mode? How many forms have transitive verbs? How many have intransitive? What is the common form? The emphatic? The progressive? The passive?

The *number* and *person* of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb may have two numbers and three persons.

REM.—The form of the verb “to be” changes to show the number and person. In the solemn or scriptural style, the second person singular, indic. pres., ends in *est*; as, “*Lovest thou me?*” The third person singular, commonly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the simple verb, assumes *eth* in the solemn style; as, “*He goeth.*”

EXERCISE.

Tell the *tenses* of the following verbs:—

Did you hear the lecture?

Archibald listened attentively.

It will not rain.

Augusta had intended to go.

I have heard the Irish orator.

My father saw the constellation of the Southern Cross.

Is Theodore confident of success?

I shall have finished my work when Maria arrives.

Had your cousin read the book?

The hills were covered with snow.

Tell the *tenses* and *forms* of the following verbs:—

The paper is published in Boston.

Sorrow is the common lot of man.

I do not mind the storm.

Carlton has gained the prize.

Guy has been learning to skate.

What is said of the number and person of the verb? How is the second person singular formed? How is the third person?

Charlemagne was beloved by his people.

Shepherd, lead on !

Thus far shalt thou go.

If thy brother die, he shall rise again.

Thou must go to rest.

He sunk to repose where the red heaths are blended.

Pale mourned the lily, where the rose had died.

His own mother would hardly have known him.

Ida was walking on the beach.

The sun will have set when I reach home.

LESSON XLV.

CONJUGATION.

The *conjugation* of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes*, *tenses*, *voices*, *numbers*, and *persons*.

The conjugation of the verb is effected by a change of its form or by the use of auxiliaries.

REM.—The only tenses which change their form are the present and the past; as, sit, sittest, sits, sat, sattest.

Auxiliary verbs are those which are used in conjugating other verbs. They are—

Present.—Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must.

Past.—Did, was, had, should, would, might, could.

The *principal parts* of a verb are the *present indicative*, the *past indicative*, and the *past participle*.

What is the conjugation of a verb? How is the conjugation of a verb effected? What are the only tenses that change their form? What are auxiliary verbs? Name the auxiliaries in the present tense? In the past? What are the principal parts of a verb?

EXAMPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Explain.	Explained.	Explained.
Reply.	Replied.	Replied.
Write.	Wrote.	Written.
Shine.	Shone.	Shone.
Hurt.	Hurt.	Hurt.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO BE."

NOTE.—Let the pupil observe the forms of the tenses, as he learns the conjugation of the different modes and tenses.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am,	We are,
2. Thou art,	You are,
3. He is.	They are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been,	We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	You have been,
3. He has been.	They have been.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was,	We were,
2. Thou wast,	You were,
3. He was.	They were.

Give the principal parts of "explain," "reply," "write," "shine," "hurt." Conjugate the verb "To Be."

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been.

Plural.

We had been,
You had been,
They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,
3. He shall *or* will be.

Plural.

We shall *or* will be,
You shall *or* will be,
They shall *or* will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will have been,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been,
3. He shall *or* will have been.

Plural.

We shall *or* will have been,
You shall *or* will have been,
They shall *or* will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may be,*
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be.

Plural.

We may be,
You may be,
They may be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,
3. He may have been.

Plural.

We may have been,
You may have been,
They may have been.

* Conjugate with each auxiliary, or with all united, thus:
I may, can, or must be.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might be,
2. Thou mightst be,
3. He might be.

Plural.

We might be,
You might be,
They might be.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,
3. He might have been.

Plural.

We might have been,
You might have been,
They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I am,
2. If thou art,
3. If he is.

Plural.

If we are,
If you are,
If they are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I have been,
2. If thou hast been,
3. If he has been.

Plural.

If we have been,
If you have been,
If they have been.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I was,
2. If thou wast,
3. If he was.

Plural.

If we were,
If you were,
If they were

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I had been,
2. If thou hadst been,
3. If he had been.

Plural.

- If we had been,
- If you had been,
- If they had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will be,
2. If thou shalt or wilt be,
3. If he shall or will be.

Plural.

- If we shall or will be,
- If you shall or will be,
- If they shall or will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will have been,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have been,
3. If he shall or will have been.

Plural.

- If we shall or will have been,
- If you shall or will have been,
- If they shall or will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

NOTE.—Besides the forms already given, the subjunctive has another in the present and past, peculiar to itself.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I be,
2. If thou be,
3. If he be.

Plural.

- If we be,
- If you be,
- If they be.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I were,
2. If thou wert,
3. If he were.

Plural.

- If we were,
- If you were,
- If they were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Be, or Be thou.

Be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE. To be.

PRESENT PERFECT. To have been

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Being	PAST. Been.
PERFECT. Having been.	

SYNOPSIS is a short view of the verb, showing its forms through the modes and tenses in a single number and person, thus: In the first person singular, we have, IND. *Pres.*, I am; *Pres. Per.*, I have been; *Past*, I was; *Past Per.*, I had been; *Fut.*, I shall be; *Fut. Per.*, I shall have been. POT. *Pres.*, I may be; *Pres. Per.*, I may have been; *Past*, I might be; *Past Per.*, I might have been. SUB. *Pres.*, If I am, &c.

EXERCISE.

In what mode and tense are the following?—

I am. He has been. If I were. You can be. He might be. To have been. They were. He will have been. You might be. She had been. You will be. To be. I must have been. Thou art. If he be. If you are. They might have been. We were. I had been. Thou wast. He is.

Give a synopsis of "to BE," in the IND. second person singular, sec. plur., first per. plur., sec. per. plur., third per. plur. POT. third per. sing., second per. plur., third per. plur. SUB. sec. per. sing., sec. per. plur., third per. plur., first. per. plur.

Give the synopsis.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB "TO LOVE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I love,
2. Thou lovest,
3. He loves.

Plural.

We love,
You love,
They love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He has lov'd.

Plural.

We have loved,
You have loved,
They have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst,
3. He loved.

Plural.

We loved,
You loved,
They loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved.

Plural.

We had loved,
You had loved,
They had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall or will love,
2. Thou shalt or wilt love,
3. He shall or will love.

Plural.

We shall or will love,
You shall or will love,
They shall or will love.

Conjugate the verb "To Love," active—passive.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I shall *or* will have loved. We shall *or* will have loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have loved, You shall *or* will have loved,
3. He shall *or* will have loved. They shall *or* will have loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I may love,
2. Thou mayst love,
3. He may love.

We may love,
You may love,
They may love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,
3. He may have loved.

We may have loved,
You may have loved,
They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I might love,
2. Thou mightst love,
3. He might love.

We might love,
You might love,
They might love.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,
3. He might have loved.

We might have loved,
You might have loved,
They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I love,	If we love,
2. If thou lovest,	If you love,
3. If he loves.	If they love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I have loved,	If we have loved,
2. If thou hast loved,	If you have loved,
3. If he has loved.	If they have loved.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I loved,	If we loved,
2. If thou lovedst,	If you loved,
3. If he loved.	If they loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I had loved,	If we had loved,
2. If thou hadst loved,	If you had loved,
3. If he had loved.	If they had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will love,	If we shall or will love,
2. If thou shalt or wilt love,	If you shall or will love,
3. If he shall or will love.	If they shall or will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will have loved,	If we shall or will have loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilthave loved,	If you shall or will have loved,
3. If he shall or will have loved.	If they shall or will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I love,	If we love,
2. If thou love	If you love,
3. If he love.	If they love.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Love, or Love thou.	Love, or Love you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT. To love. PERFECT. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Loving.	PAST. Loved.
PERFECT. Having loved.	

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved,	We are loved,
2. Thou art loved,	You are loved.
3. He is loved.	They are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been loved,	We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,	You have been loved,
3. He has been loved.	They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was loved,	We were loved,
2. Thou wast loved,	You were loved,
3. He was loved.	They were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been loved,	We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,	You had been loved,
3. He had been loved.	They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall or will be loved,	We shall or will be loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved,	You shall or will be loved,
3. He shall or will be loved.	They shall or will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall or will have been loved,	We shall or will have been loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt have been loved,	You shall or will have been loved,
3. He shall or will have been loved.	They shall or will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may be loved,	We may be loved,
2. Thou mayst be loved,	You may be loved,
3. He may be loved.	They may be loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I may have been loved,
2. Thou mayst have been loved,
3. He may have been loved.

We may have been loved,
You may have been loved,
They may have been loved

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I might be loved,
2. Thou mightst be loved,
3. He might be loved.

We might be loved,
You might be loved,
They might be loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. I might have been loved,
2. Thou mightst have been loved,
3. He might have been loved,

We might have been loved.
You might have been loved
They might have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I am loved,
2. If thou art loved,
3. If he is loved.

If we are loved,
If you are loved,
If they are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I have been loved,
2. If thou hast been loved,
3. If he has been loved.

If we have been loved,
If you have been loved,
If they have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1. If I was loved,
2. If thou wast loved,
3. If he was loved.

If we were loved,
If you were loved,
If they were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I had been loved,
2. If thou hadst been loved,
3. If he had been loved.

Plural.

- If we had been loved,
- If you had been loved,
- If they had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will be loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt be loved,
3. If he shall or will be loved.

Plural.

- If we shall or will be loved,
- If you shall or will be loved,
- If they shall or will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will have been loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have been loved,
3. If he shall or will have been loved.

Plural.

- If we shall or will have been loved,
- If you shall or will have been loved,
- If they shall or will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I be loved,
2. If thou be loved,
3. If he be loved.

Plural.

- If we be loved,
- If you be loved,
- If they be loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I were loved,
2. If thou wert loved,
3. If he were loved.

Plural.

- If we were loved,
- If you were loved,
- If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Be loved, or Be thou loved. Be loved, or Be you loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT. To be loved.

PERFECT. To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Being loved. PAST (PASSIVE). Loved.

PERFECT. Having been loved.

EXERCISE.

Tell the mode, tense, voice, number, and person of the following:—

She has loved. I might love. We had loved. We had been loved. He may have loved. If I be loved. I love. He will love. He shall have loved. I have loved. They shall have loved. She is loved. We may be loved. You might have been loved. If I love. If they love. They may love. We will love. I had loved. Thou hast loved. Thou wilt have loved. Thou art loved. He was loved. She will have been loved.

Write or repeat a full conjugation of the following verbs:—

Relieve, betray, defy, persuade, resolve, determine.

Conjugate two of the above verbs interrogatively, two of them negatively, and two of them interrogatively and negatively. Thus:—

Do I love? &c. I do not love, &c. Do I not love? &c.

LESSON XLVI.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An *irregular* verb is one which does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present tense; as, *see, saw, seen; write, wrote, written*.

REM.—The following list contains the principal parts of the irregular verbs. Those verbs which are marked R. have also the regular forms, and those which are *Italicized* are either obsolete or are becoming so:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am,	Was,	Been.
Arise,	Arose,	Arisen.
Awake,	Awoke, R.	Awaked.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	Bore, bare,	Born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	Bore, bare,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend,	Bent, R.	Bent.
Bereave,	Bereft, R.	Bereft, R.
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bidden, bid.
Bind, <i>Un-</i> ,	Bound	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke, <i>brake</i> ,	Broken, <i>broke</i> .
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build, <i>Re-</i> ,	Built, R.	Built.
Burn,	Burnt, R.	Burnt, R.
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught,	Caught.
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, chid.
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave (<i>to others</i>),	Cleaved, <i>clave</i> ,	Cleaved.
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	Clove, cleft, <i>clave</i> ,	Cleft, <i>cloven</i> , R.
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clad, R.	Clad, R.
Come, <i>Be-</i> ,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, R.	Crowed
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>),	Durst,	Dared.
Dare (<i>to challenge</i>) R	Dared,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt, R.	Dealt, R.
Dig,	Dug, R.	Dug, R.
Do, <i>Mis-, Un-</i> ,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamt, R.	Dreamt, R.
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelt, R.	Dwelt, R.
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten.
Fall, <i>Be-</i> ,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forbear,	Forbore,	Forborne
Forget,	Forgot,	Forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight,	Freighted,	Fraught, R.
Get, <i>Be-</i> , <i>For-</i> ,	Got,	Got, gotten.
Gild,	Gilt, R.	Gilt, R.
Gird, <i>Be-</i> , <i>En-</i> ,	Girt, R.	Girt, R.
Give, <i>For-</i> , <i>Mis-</i> ,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave, <i>En-</i> ,	Graved,	Graven, R.
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang,	Hung,	Hung.*
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Hove, R.	Hoven, R.
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn, R.
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, hid.
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold, <i>Be-</i> , <i>With-</i> ,	Held,	Held, holden.
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel,	Knelt, R.	Knelt, R.
Knit,	Knit, R.	Knit, R.
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade (<i>to load</i>), †	Laded,	Laden.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie (<i>to recline</i>),	Lay,	Lain.
Light,	Lit, R.	Lit, R.
Load,	Loaded,	Laden, R.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.

* *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular.

† *Lade*, *to dip*, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown, <i>R.</i>
Pay, <i>Re-</i> ,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen (<i>to enclose</i>),	Pent, <i>R.</i>	Pent, <i>R.</i>
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, <i>R</i>	Quit, <i>R.</i>
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode, <i>rid</i> ,	Ridden, <i>rid.</i>
Ring,	Rang, <i>rung</i> ,	Rung.
Rise, <i>A-</i> ,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven, <i>R.</i>
Rot,	Rotted,	Rotten, <i>R.</i>
Run,	Ran, <i>run</i> ,	Run.
Saw,	Sawed,	Sawn, <i>R.</i>
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seethe,	Sod, <i>R.</i>	Sodden, <i>R.</i>
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set, <i>Be-</i> ,	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Shaped,	Shapen, <i>R.</i>
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaven, <i>R.</i>
Shear, -	Sheared,	Shorn, <i>R.</i>
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine,	Shone, <i>R.</i>	Shone, <i>R.</i>
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show,	Showed,	Shown.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink,	Shrunk, <i>shrank</i> ,	Shrunk.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, sung,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, <i>sank</i> ,	Sunk.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slidden, slid.
Sling,	Slung, <i>slang</i> ,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit,	Slit,	Slit, <i>r.</i>
Smite,	Smote	Smitten, smit.
Sow (<i>to scatter</i>),	Sowed,	Sown, <i>r.</i>
Speak <i>Be-</i> ,	Spoke, <i>spake</i> ,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spell,	Spelt, <i>r.</i>	Spelt, <i>r.</i>
Spend, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill,	Spilt, <i>r.</i>	Spilt, <i>r.</i>
Spin,	Spun, <i>span</i> ,	Spun.
Spit, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spit, <i>spat</i> ,	Spit.
Split,	Split,	Split.
Spread, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, sprung,	Sprung.
Stand, <i>With-</i> , &c.,	Stood,	Stood.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode, strid,	Stridden, strid.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, stricken.
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove;	Striven.
Strow, or Strew, <i>Be-</i> ,	Strowed or strewed,	Strown, strewn, <i>r.</i>
Swear,	Swore, <i>sware</i> ,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, <i>r.</i>	Sweat, <i>r.</i>
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swollen, <i>r.</i>
Swim,	Swam, <i>swum</i> ,	Swum.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take, <i>Be-</i> , &c.	Took,	Taken.
Teach, <i>Mis-</i> , <i>Re-</i>	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore, <i>tare</i> ,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think, <i>Be-</i> ,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve, R.	Thriven, R.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, trod.
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxen, R.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Wet,	Wet, R.	Wet, R.
Whet,	Whet, R.	Whet, R.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound, R.	Wound.
Work,	Wrought, R.	Wrought, R.
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

MODEL FOR PARSING A VERB.

Anna had gone to walk.

Had gone (1) is a *verb*; a word which expresses being, action, or state.

(2) *irregular*; it does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed*.

(3) go, went, gone.

(4) *intransitive*; it does not require an object to complete its meaning.

Give the form for parsing a verb. Parse "Had gone," according to the model, "To walk."

- (5) *common form*; it represents an act indefinitely, &c.
- (6) *indicative mode*; it asserts a thing as actual.
- (7) *past perfect tense*; it represents a past event completed in past time, formed by prefixing *had* to the past participle *gone*.
- (8) I had gone, thou hadst gone, he had gone, we had gone, you had gone, they had gone.
- (9) *third person, singular number*, because *Anna* is.
- (10) RULE IV. —The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

To walk is a regular, intransitive verb, active voice (*walk*, *walking*, *walked*), infinitive mode, present tense, and depends on *had gone*. RULE XVI.

EXERCISE.

Parse the verbs in the following examples:—

Blessed are the peace-makers.

Homage should be paid to the Most High.

The Magna Charta was granted to the English by King John.

The Mexicans were defeated by the Americans at Buena Vista.

If you wish, I will show you the Royal Oak where King Charles hid himself.

Cromwell's name will be long remembered.

Should you like to take a ride?

The village bells are ringing merrily.

Lives of great men all remind us,
We can make our deeds sublime;
And, departing, leave behind us,
Footsteps in the sands of Time.

LESSON XLVII.

ADVERBS.

An *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, adjective, participle, or other adverb.

EXAMPLES.

The stage started *early*.

He has undertaken a *very* difficult task.

The sun, shining *brightly*, awoke me.

How wildly the old man talked!

REM.—Instead of a single word, a phrase or proposition may be added to a verb, adjective, or adverb, to express an adverbial idea; as, “Speak *distinctly*—with *distinctness*—so that you may be understood.”

Adverbs may be divided into four general classes—adverbs of *place*, of *time*, of *cause*, of *manner*.

Adverbs of *place* answer the questions *Where?* *Whither?* *Whence?* as, *here*, *there*, *above*, *below*, *yonder*, *somewhere*, *nowhere*, *back*, *upwards*, *downwards*, &c., &c.

Adverbs of *time* answer the questions *When?* *How long?* *How often?* as, *then*, *yesterday*, *always*, *ever*, *continually*, *often*, *frequently*, &c.

Adverbs of *cause* answer the questions, *Why?* *Wherefore?* as, *why*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, *then*.

Adverbs of *manner* answer the questions, *How?* as, *elegantly*, *faithfully*, *fairly*, &c.

What is an adverb? How may an adverbial idea be expressed? How are adverbs divided? What questions do adverbs of place answer? Adverbs of time? Adverbs of cause? Of manner?

With these last may be classed those which answer the question *How?* in respect to *quantity* or *quality*, as, *How much?* *How good?* such as, *too, very, greatly, chiefly, &c.*

Modal adverbs qualify the *assertion*, and not, like other adverbs, that which is asserted. They are: *yea, yes, verily, truly, surely, undoubtedly, doubtless, forsooth, certainly, no, nay, not, possibly, probably, perhaps, peradventure, perchance.*

Conjunctive adverbs are those which give to a dependent clause an adverbial relation, and connect it with the verb, adjective, or adverb which it modifies; as, "I shall meet my friend *when* the boat arrives."

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Many adverbs, like adjectives, admit of comparison; as, *soon, sooner, soonest; bravely, more bravely, most bravely.*

REM.—The following adverbs are compared irregularly:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Ill or badly,	Worse,	Worst.
Little.	Less,	Least.
Far,	Farther,	Farthest.
Much,	More,	Most.
Well,	Better,	Best.

MODEL.

The stream flows most rapidly in the spring.

Rapidly (1) is an *adverb* of manner. Why?

(2) Compared, (*rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly*); superlative degree.

(3) It limits *flows*. *Rule.*—"Adverbs are used to limit participles, adjectives, and other adverbs."

What are classed with adverbs of manner? What are modal adverbs? What are conjunctive adverbs? Are adverbs compared? Compare *ill, little, far, much, well*. Parse "most rapidly," according to the model.

I shall go before you arrive.

Before is a conjunctive adverb of time, and connects the clause “*before you arrive*” with the verb *shall go*. RULE XV.

Parse the following adverbs:—

The Athenians were always seeking some new thing
Man never loses the sentiment of his true good.

How novel, how grand the spectacle!

There, then, she had found a grave.

- My mother died when I was very young.

Go, where glory waits thee.

Kate wept bitterly.

Where shall we find rest?

Isabella gladly welcomed the early violet.

Henry rises very early.

The prospect is extremely beautiful.

LESSON XLVIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word; as, “He sailed *upon* the ocean *in* a ship.”

REM.—The preposition always shows a relation between two terms, an *antecedent* and a *subsequent*. The subsequent term is called the *object* of the preposition. The preposition and object united form a dependent element of the sentence, having the antecedent term as its principal. When the dependent element is joined to a noun, it is of the nature of an adjective;

Parse “*before*.” What is a preposition? What is the object of a preposition? What do the preposition and its object form? What do they express when joined to a noun?

as, The rays of *the sun*—*Solar* rays. When joined to a verb, adjective, or adverb, the dependent phrase is usually of the nature of an adverb; as, The case was conducted *with skill—skilfully*.

The following is a list of the principal prepositions in use:—

aboard,	before,	for,	through,
about,	behind,	from,	throughout,
above,	below,	in, into,	till,
according to,	beneath,	'mid,	to,
across,	beside, or	'midst,	touching,
after,	besides,	notwithstanding,	toward, or
against,	between,	of,	towards,
along,	betwixt,	off,	under,
amid, or	beyond,	on,	underneath,
amidst,	by,	out of,	until,
among, or	concerning,	over,	unto,
amongst,	down,	past,	up,
around,	during,	regarding,	upon,
at,	ere,	respecting,	with,
athwart,	except,	round,	within,
bating,	excepting,	since,	without.

MODEL.

He has gone to New York.

To (1) is a *preposition*; it is used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word.
 (2) It shows the relation between the noun *New York* and the verb *gone*.
 (3) RULE XIII.—A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

What do the preposition and its object express when joined to a verb, adjective, or adverb? Give the list of prepositions.

Parse the following prepositions:—

Cornelia heard the birds sing in the morning.
 The winds will come from the distant south.
 I shall be Queen of the May.
 The hills are covered with a carpet of green.
 We shall seek the early fruits in the sunny valley.
 The love of money is the root of all evil.
 From shore to shore, it was free.
 On the shore stands a lovely cottage.

LESSON XLIX.

CONJUNCTIONS.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences; as, “The horse fell over the precipice, *but* the rider escaped.” “The horse and rider fell over the precipice.”

Rem.—A *pure conjunction* forms no part of the material or substance of the sentence. Its office is simply to unite the materials into a single structure. A *mixed conjunction*, or *connective*, forms a part of the sentence, and at the same time joins the parts together; as, “This is the pencil *which* (both object and connective) I lost.”

All connectives (whether pure conjunctions or conjunctive words) are divided into two classes—*coördinate* or *subordinate*.

Coördinate connectives join similar elements; as, *John* and *James* were disciples.

Here *John* and *James* are similar in construction, and have a common relation to the predicate.

What is a conjunction? How are they divided? What do coördinate connectives join?

Subordinate connectives are those which join dissimilar elements; as, "I shall go *when* the stage arrives."

Here *when* joins the clause *when the stage arrives*, a dependent expression, to its principal, the verb *shall go*. It forms a part of the clause which it connects.

Coördinate connectives are always conjunctions, and may be divided into three classes:—

1. *Copulative*; as, *and*, *also*, *even*.
2. *Adverbial*; as, *but*, *yet*, *still*, *however*.
3. *Alternative*; as, *or*, *nor*, *either*, *neither*.

Subordinate connectives are also divided into three classes:—

1. Those which connect *substantive clauses*; as, *that*, *that not*.
2. Those which connect *adjective clauses*; as, *who*, *which*, *what, that*.
3. Those which connect *adverbial clauses*; as—

PLACE.—*Where, whence, whither, wherever, whithersoever*.

TIME.—*When, while, before, ere, until, till, whenever, whensover*.

CAUSE.—*For, because, as, since, lest, that*.

MANNER.—*How, so as, so that*.

MODEL.

Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers.

And (1) is a *conjunction*; it is used to connect sentences, or the parts of a sentence.

(2) *coördinate*, it connects similar elements.

What do subordinate connectives join? How are coördinate connectives divided? How are subordinate connectives divided? Give examples of each kind.

(3) It connects *Socrates* and *Plato*.

(4) RULE XI. — Coördinate conjunctions are used to join similar elements.

Either Lucia or Julia will come.

Either is a coördinate conjunction (alternative), used as correlative of *or*.

Or is a coördinate conjunction (alternative), and, with its correlative *either*, connects *Lucia* and *Julia*. RULE XI.

Parse the following conjunctions:—

Clouds and darkness are round about him.

I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians.

Mordaunt neither spoke nor moved after his fall.

My punishment is greater than I can bear.

Thou art, and wert, and shall be a great, life-giving, life-sustaining potentate.

Oh! that those lips had language.

I hope that Edward will not be rash.

Write appropriate connectives in place of the dashes in the following:—

— you have nothing to say, say nothing.

— the cat is away, the mice will play.

I shall love the sea, — it is his grave.

Samuel — his brother came to town.

LESSON L.

INTERJECTIONS.

An *interjection* is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind; as, “*Alas!* I have chid away my friend.”

What is an interjection?

The principal interjections are —

Hey, hurrah, huzza, aha, hah, ah, ho, lo, hallo, fie, pshaw tush, alas, woe, alack, O, hist, hush, mum, &c.

MODEL.

O lightly, lightly tread.

- O* (1) is an *interjection*, it expresses some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.
- (2) It has no grammatical relation with any other word.
- (3) *Rule*.—The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

Parse the following interjections :—

Hark! they whisper, angels say, “ Sister spirit! come away !”
 Wo for my vine-clad home !
 O grave, where is thy victory !
 Ah me ! how sad my lot !

SYNTAX.

LESSON LI.

SENTENCES.

SYNTAX treats of the construction of sentences.

A *sentence* is a thought expressed in words ; as :
 “ The winds blow.”

Of what does Syntax treat ? What is a sentence ?

All sentences are either *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*.

A *declarative* sentence is one which declares something; as, "The truth will prevail."

An *interrogative* sentence is one which asks a question; as, "Wilt thou be made whole?"

An *imperative* sentence is one which expresses a command; as, "Put up thy sword into the sheath."

An *exclamatory* sentence is one which contains an exclamation; as, "How art thou fallen!"

EXERCISE.

Point out the different kinds of sentences in these examples, and construct or select others like them:—

The heat is oppressive.

How vivid is the lightning!

Believe ye, that I can do this?

Children obey your parents.

Shall the Turk still pollute the soil sanctified by the brightest genius?

LESSON LII.

PROPOSITIONS.

Every sentence must contain at least one principal proposition; as, "The Lord reigneth."

REM.—A subordinate proposition, as, "If he come," is not a sentence, but only a part or element of a sentence. While

Name the four different kinds of sentences. What is a declarative sentence? An interrogative? An imperative? An exclamatory? What must every sentence contain?

every sentence *must* contain, at least, one independent proposition, it *may* contain any number of others, either principal or subordinate. When propositions are thus combined, they are called *clauses*. A clause, therefore, is always a proposition, but a proposition is not always a clause; it is sometimes an entire sentence.

A *proposition* is the combination of a subject and a predicate; as, "The ocean roars."

The *subject* is that of which something is affirmed; as, "The *lilies* fade."

The *predicate* is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, "The waves *dash*."

REM.—The predicate is sometimes that which is *denied* of the subject; as, "The door is *not* shut." But to deny is only to affirm a negative. In general, *affirm* is here used to apply to every species of proposition, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory, as well as declarative.

The subject usually represents some object, and the predicate some attribute of that object; as, "The *apple* is *sweet*."

Attributes are of three kinds:—

1. Those which denote the *class* of objects, as, *beast*, *bird*, *tree*.
2. Those which denote the *qualities* of objects; as, *good*, *old*, *sweet*.
3. Those which denote the *actions* of objects; as, *run*, *crawl*, *fly*.

An attribute may be represented as joined to an object in two ways:—

What is said of clauses? What is a proposition? What is the subject? The predicate? In what sense is the word "affirm" here used? What do the subject and predicate usually represent? How many kinds of attributes are there?

1. It may be *assumed* of it; as, *blue sky*, *rough sea*, *poisonous reptiles*.

2. It may be *predicated* of it; as, *The sky is blue*; *the sea is rough*; *reptiles are poisonous*.

When an attribute is assumed of an object, it is said to *modify* or *limit* it. See Lessons V., VII., and IX.

When an attribute is predicated of an object, the words form a proposition. See Lessons V., VII., and IX.

REM.—The predicate consists of two parts—some form of the verb “to be” called the *copula*, and the *attribute*; as, “*The fruit is ripe*.” These two parts may be combined in one word; the predicate is then always a verb, which is itself equivalent to the copula and attribute; as, *The winds roar = are roaring*. So that the predicate is either a verb, or it contains a verb. See Lesson IX.

EXERCISES.

1. Name any objects which contain these qualities:

Yellow, smooth, cold, pure, clear, wild, heavy.

Assume and then predicate them. Tell which examples form propositions.

2. Name any qualities which belong to these objects:

Tree, brook, gold, clouds, sponge, rose.

Assume and then predicate as above.

In how many ways may an attribute be joined to an object? When the attribute is predicated, what is formed? What is said when the attribute is assumed? Of how many parts does the predicate consist? What remark upon the predicate when these two parts are combined?

3. Point to any five *objects* which you can see, and tell the *class* to which they belong, remembering that the *common name* of an object indicates its class. (See Lesson XV.) Assume and predicate each. Thus :—

This object, a *pencil*. This object *is a pencil*. Charles, a *scholar*. Charles *is a scholar*.

4. Name any appropriate actions for the following objects :—

Birds, fishes, children, serpents, dogs.

Assume and predicate these actions of appropriate objects :—

Fly, slide, weave, run, play, study, drive.

5. Which of the following combinations are propositions? Which are not?

The men are idle.

A white horse.

The setting sun.

The snow is falling.

The stars twinkle.

Trees falling.

Pale ink.

Ice melts.

Change these last examples, predicate the assumed, and assume the predicated attributes.

LESSON LIII

CLASSES OF PROPOSITIONS AND SENTENCES.

Propositions are divided into two classes—*principal* and *subordinate*.

Into how many classes are propositions divided?

A *principal* proposition contains the principal or leading assertion: it is that on which the subordinate depends; as: "When spring comes, *the flowers will bloom.*"

A *subordinate* proposition is one which, by means of a subordinate connective, depends upon some part of the principal proposition; as: "When spring comes, *the flowers will bloom.*"

EXERCISE.

Separate the following sentences into their propositions, and tell which are principal, and which are subordinate:—

The vessel which he has so long expected, has arrived.

Peter the Hermit, who preached the first crusade, was a native of Amiens, in France.

I thought that Eugenia was sincere.

While I was musing, the fire burned.

I will write when my mother has arrived.

I shall not sail for Europe until the winter has passed.

Norman has lost the watch which his father sent him.

Where thou goest, I will go.

Propositions of the same kind, that is, both principal or both subordinate, are said to be *similar*; those of different kinds are said to be *dissimilar*.

A *simple* sentence contains but one proposition; as: "The wind blows."

A *complex* sentence contains two or more dissimilar

What is a principal proposition? What is a subordinate proposition? What are similar propositions? Dissimilar? What does a simple sentence contain? A complex?

propositions; as: "When the wind blows, the trees bend."

A *compound* sentence contains two or more similar propositions; as: "The winds blow and the trees bend."

EXERCISE.

Tell which sentences in the following exercise are simple, which are complex, and which are compound:

The gathering darkness of night comes on.

If it should storm, the lecture will be postponed.

Herman left the home of his childhood, and he returned no more.

The waters dance gaily along.

The dews of night began to fall, and the moon silvered the ruined abbey.

The scenes which we loved in childhood, are still dear to us.

LESSON LIV.

ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

The *elements* of a sentence are its component parts, each standing for an *idea* and its *relation*; as: "The shepherd — gave — the alarm — when he discovered the approach of the wolf."

NOTE.—*Shepherd*, in this example, becomes an element only when it is put in relation to *gave*. So *gave* becomes an element by virtue of its relation to *shepherd*; and so of the others. The

What does a compound sentence contain? What are the elements of a sentence? Explain the general method of analyzing a sentence.

learner should bear in mind that *a thought* is analyzed, when separated into its several *ideas*; a *sentence* is analyzed when separated into the *expressions* for those ideas. Thus, in the sentence above, we have four principal ideas and the same number of expressions: *Who gave?* *The shepherd,* *What did the shepherd do?* *Gave.* *What did he give?* *The alarm.* *When did he give it?* *When he discovered the approach of the wolf.* The learner should unite in one group *all* the words which express the idea.

1. All elements are divided according to their *rank* or *relation* to each other, into *principal* and *subordinate*; and when two of the same kind are united, they are *coördinate* with each other.

Thus, every sentence *must* have a subject and a predicate; hence these two are *principal*; as: "Pupils study." A sentence *may* also have an adjective element, an objective element, and an adverbial element. These three depend upon and modify the other two; hence they are *subordinate*; as: *Faithful — PUPILS — STUDY — grammar — carefully.* It will be seen that a sentence may contain five distinct elements, two *principal*, and three *subordinate*.

The influence which one element has over another in construction may be expressed by the following rules:—

RULE I.—The principal element always controls or governs the subordinate.

That is, it causes the subordinate either to *agree* with itself, or to take some particular *case*, *mode*, or *tense*. The former is called *agreement*; the latter, *government*. Thus, the adjective

How are elements divided according to their rank or relation? What are coördinate elements? What are the principal elements of a sentence? Rule I. How does the principal element control the subordinate?

implying number agrees in *number* with the noun ; as : " *These (not this) books* ;" the verb agrees in *number* and *person* with the subject ; as : " *I walk* ;" the predicate noun or pronoun agrees in *case* with the subject ; as, " *I am he*." So also the noun in apposition. The *government* of the superior term is effected either *directly* ; as, " *Solomon's temple* ;"—or by means of a *connective* ; as, " *The temple of Solomon*." So also of the *objective* case, " *We saw him*," " *We looked at him*." So of the *subjunctive* mode, " *Should it rain*, I shall not go ;" " *If it should rain*, I shall not go."

RULE II.—The subordinate element always modifies or limits the principal.

That is, it restricts a *general* to a *particular* application ; as, " *The people (not all people, but those) of Maine*."

RULE III.—Coördinate elements neither govern nor modify each other.

That is, the one in no way affects the *case*, *mode*, *tense*, *number*, *person*, *agreement*, or *application* of the other ; as, " *He informed you and me*." Here, *me* is not in the objective, because it is coördinate with *you*, but because it is the direct object of *informed*.

NOTE.—These three general principles involve nearly all the particular *rules* of Syntax.

2. All elements are divided according to their *nature* and *use* into *substantive*, *adjective*, and *adverbial*.

EXAMPLES.

WORDS.	PHRASES.	CLAUSES.
<i>Substant' e.</i> Song.	<i>To sing.</i>	<i>That one should sing.</i>
<i>Adjective.</i> Wise man.	Man of wisdom.	Man who is wise.
<i>Adverbial.</i> Rising early.	At sunrise.	When the sun rises.

Give Rule II. Rule III. How are all elements divided according to their nature and use ? Give the examples.

NOTE.—To classify elements according to their *nature* and *use*, the learner has only to ask, in case of a word, what part of speech it is; and in case of a group of words, what part of speech it would be, if the same idea were expressed by one word.

EXERCISE.

Point out the different kinds of elements in these examples, and tell which are principal and which are subordinate:—

Clinton will go to the sea-side to-morrow.

The splashing surf is refreshing.

Yesterday, the word of Cæsar might have stood against the world.

Times of greatest calamity and confusion have been productive of the greatest minds.

The hall of the mansion is spacious.

The lawn in front extends to the sea.

The restless waves over which Sir William Pepperell sought fortune, still glitter in the sunbeams.

As we ascend the staircase, paintings of angels' heads decorate the hall window.

Error is a hardy plant; it flourisheth in every soil.

Few and precious are the words which the lips of Wisdom utter.

LESSON LV.

ELEMENTS CONTINUED.

3. Elements are divided, according to their form, into the *first*, *second*, and *third* classes.

How are elements divided according to their form?

A simple element of the first class is a *single word* representing both an idea and its relation; as, Good — boys — study — grammar — carefully. Here each word represents not only a distinct idea, but also its relation to another idea.

A simple element of the second class is a *phrase* consisting of two words, one representing an idea, and the other its relation; as, "John lives — *in hope*." Here, if we leave *out in*, the *relation* will not be represented; "John lives *hope*;" if we leave out *hope*, the *idea* will be wanting, "John lives *in*." Both must be represented by separate words, in the simplest possible form of the element. Hence, the difference between an element of the first, and an element of the second class. Simple elements of the second class are usually the *infinitive*, or the *preposition* and its *object* taken together. The predicate, when composed of the *copula* and *attribute*, is properly an element of the second class.

A simple element of the third class is a *clause* consisting of a *proposition* to represent an idea and a *connective*, to show its relation; as, "I know — *that he went*." Compare this with the two preceding.

EXERCISE.

Classify the elements in the following examples:—

James walked through the garden.

Though he was rich, yet for our sakes, he became poor.

A peace which consults the good of both parties, is the surest, because both parties are interested in its preservation.

The army marched slowly forward.

The Greeks took Troy by stratagem.

Honesty is the best policy.

What is a simple element of the first class? What is a simple element of the second class? What are they usually? What is a simple element of the third class?

4. Elements are divided according to their *state* or *condition*, into *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

A *simple* element is a single expression for an idea and its relation, without modification or addition. It may be either of the first, second, or third class; as, "We left — *early* — *at dawn* — *as day dawned*."

The unmodified subject is called the *simple* or *grammatical* subject; the unmodified predicate, the *simple* or *grammatical* predicate, and so of all the other elements.

A *complex* element is a simple element modified by one or more elements subordinate to it. It is of the first, second, or third class when the simple element called its *basis*, is of the first, second, or third class; as, We left — *very early* — *at early dawn* — *as day first dawned in the east*. (Compare these examples with the preceding.)

The modified subject is called the *complex* or *logical* subject, and so of all other elements.

A *compound* element is the union of two or more coördinate, simple, or complex elements. The component parts may be either of the first, second, or third class; as, We are employed — *early and late*. We are employed — *at noon and at night*. We were travelling — *when the wind was blowing furiously, and when the storm was beating against our carriage*.

The coördinate subjects taken together are called the *compound* subject; and so of all the other elements.

EXERCISE.

Classify the following elements:—

The dying king tried every remedy in vain.

Clouds and darkness are round about him.

How are elements divided according to their state or condition? What is a simple element? What is the simple subject? Predicate? What is a complex element? What is the modified subject called? What is a compound element? What is the compound subject?

Righteousness and truth are the habitation of his throne.
Eva accepted the invitation with pleasure.
With trembling limbs and faltering steps, he departed from
his desolate home
The lever which moves the world of mind, is the printing
press.

We closed the dim and lifeless eye,
We smoothed the parted hair;
And decked the sleeping form with flowers,
But no bright soul was there.

LESSON LVI.

DEFINITIONS AND RULES.

To *construct* a sentence, is to combine its several elements.

To *analyze* a sentence, is to separate it into its several elements.

To *classify* sentences, is to tell whether they are (1) *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*; (2) *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*.

To *transform* a sentence, is to change its form, either by *altering*, *transposing*, *suppressing*, or *supplying* any of its elements, without materially changing the meaning.

To *reconstruct* a sentence, is to express the same thought in other words.

What is it to construct a sentence? To analyze it? To classify sentences? To transform a sentence? To reconstruct it?

To *parse* a sentence, is to name the class (parts of speech) of each of its words, and to give their modifications, relations, agreement, or government, and the rules for their construction.

To *correct* a sentence, is to alter it so as to make it conform to the rules of construction.

The *Rules of Construction* are the principles established by the usages of the language. They are the following:—

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used as the *attribute* of a proposition after the finite verb *to be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, must be in the nominative case.

RULE III. A *pronoun* must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person.

RULE V. An adjective or participle must belong to some noun or pronoun; as, "The *guilty* man;" "The man was *guilty*." Or, more specifically,—

(1.) An adjective or participle used as the *attribute* of a proposition after the verb *to be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, belongs to the subject; as, "The tree is *tall*." "To see the sun is *pleasant*." "Where the funds will be obtained is *doubtful*."

(2.) An adjective or participle used to *limit* or *qualify* a noun, belongs to the noun which it modifies; as, "An *upright* judge." "Five boxes." "The *good old* man."

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *explain* or *identify*

What is it to parse a sentence? To correct it? Give Rule I. Rule II. Rule III. Rule IV. Rule V. Rule VI.

another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case.

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case.

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case.

RULE IX. *Adverbs* are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

RULE X. The nominative case *independent*, and the *interjection*, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

(1.) If it agrees with them taken *conjointly*, it must be in the *plural number*.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with *one*, and *not* the other, it must take the number of that one.

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a preposition, must be in the objective case.

RULE XV. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

RULE XVI. The *infinitive* has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the *verb*, and when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits.

RULE XVII. *Participles* have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*.

Give Rule VII. Rule VIII. Rule IX. Rule X. Rule XI. Rule XII. Rule XIII. Rule XIV. Rule XV. Rule XVI. Rule XVII.

LESSON LVII.

SIMPLE SENTENCES—ELEMENTS OF THE FIRST CLASS—
WORDS.

An element of the first class is a *single word*.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SUBJECT.

The subject is always put in construction with the predicate, and by the following rule:—

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case; as, “*Caesar conquered Gaul.*”

REM.—This rule is universal. Whatever is used as the subject, whether a letter, a syllable, a phrase, or a clause, is of the nature of a noun, and must be in the nominative case.

CAUTION AND EXERCISES.

CAUTION.—Never use the objective as the subject of a finite verb. Say, *I did it*—not *Me did it*.

I. CONSTRUCTION.—Construct five other sentences like each of the following in (1) and (2):—

(1.) (*Subject and predicate expressed.*) Time flies. She reads. Ida walks. Jesus wept. Kings reign. Fruit ripens. I live.

(2.) (*Sub. understood.*) Come. Study. Awake. Arise. Go. See. Return. Behold.

MODEL.—“Come” is a sentence; its subject is understood. I “*thou*,” “*you*,” or “*ye*.” Thus, supply “Come thou.”

With what is the subject always put in construction? Give Rule I. The remark upon it. The caution.

(3.) (*Subject wanting.*) — buzz. — study. — drink.
— play. — frisk.

MODEL.—“Buzz” is not a sentence; it has no subject. I add “bees.” Thus, “Bees buzz.”

(4.) (*Parts to be combined.*) Wind roar; he speak; she sit;
it snow.

MODEL.—“Wind roar” is not a sentence; the parts are not combined. I change “wind” to “winds.” Thus, “Winds roar.”

2. ANALYSIS.—Analyze the preceding sentences.

MODEL.—“Time flies” is a sentence; it is a thought expressed in words. “Time” is the subject; it is that of which something is affirmed. “Flies” is the predicate; it is that which is affirmed of the subject.

3. PARSING.—Parse the subjects in the preceding examples. (See Model, p. 77.)

4. CLASSIFICATION.—Classify (1) the preceding sentences; (2) their elements.

Thus, “Time flies” is a simple, declarative sentence; *simple*, it contains but one proposition; *declarative*, it declares something. “Come” is a simple, imperative sentence. Why? The subject and predicate in each is an element of the first class, each being a *single word* expressing an idea and its relation.

NOTE.—Classification, analysis, and parsing may be combined. Thus, “Time flies” is a simple, declarative sentence. “Time” is the subject, and “flies” is the predicate; both elements of the first class. “Time” is a common noun, &c.

5. TRANSFORMATION.—Transform the preceding sentences.

- (1.) Change them to interrogative. Thus, "Does time fly?"
- (2.) Change them to imperative, and point out the *transpositions*. Thus, "Fly thou, time."
- (3.) Change them to exclamatory. "How time flies!"
- (4.) In (2), suppress the *subject* and *nominative independent*. Thus, "Fly."
- (5.) Change the number, person, and gender (when it can be done) of the subjects, and explain the consequent changes in the predicate. Substitute pronouns for each of the subject-nouns, and explain their agreement by Rule III.

6. CORRECTION.—Correct by the Caution the following examples:—

Claud and me are going together. Him that is studious will improve. Lionel will find the lost lamb sooner than me. Who told you that story? Him and her. I knew it as well as her. Them are the books I wanted. Did they say whom was coming?

MODEL.—"Claud and me are going together" is incorrect, because the objective pronoun *me* is made the subject of the verb "are going." It should be (see Caution) "Claud and I are going together."

Correct any improper expressions which you have heard to-day.

LESSON LVIII.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE PREDICATE.

The predicate is put in construction with the subject by one of the following rules:—

RULE II.—A noun or pronoun used as the *attribute* of a proposition after the finite verb "to be," or any

With what is the predicate put in construction? Give Rule II.

intransitive or passive verb, must be in the nominative case; as, "It is *he*;" "They are *philosophers*."

RULE V. SPECIFIC RULE (I.)

An adjective used as the *attribute* of a proposition after the finite verb "to be," or any intransitive or passive verb, belongs to the subject; as, "The war was *sanguinary*."

RULE IV.—The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person; as, "I *am*;" "Thou *art* sitting."

RULE II.—CAUTION AND EXERCISES.

CAUTION. Never use the objective as the attribute. Say "It is *I*," not "It is *me*."

1. Construct five other examples like the following (in 1), and fill the blanks:

(1.) (*Sub. and pred. expressed.*) Gold is a metal. It is she. It is I. Panama is an isthmus.

(2.) (*Subject wanting.*) — is an island. — is he. — is a merchant.

(3.) (*Attribute wanting.*) Boston is a —. Borneo is an —. It is —.

(4.) (*Copula wanting.*) George — my brother. Paul — an apostle. Nero — a tyrant.

2. Analyze, classify, and parse the foregoing sentences.

MODEL.—"Gold is a metal," is a simple, declarative sentence.

Why? "Gold" is the subject, and "is a metal" is the predicate. Why? "Is" is the *copula*, and "metal" is

Give Special Rule. Rule IV. The caution under Rule II.

the *attribute*.* “Gold” is a common noun, &c. (Model, p. 140.) “Is” is an irregular intransitive verb, &c. (Model, p. 140.) “Metal” is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case. It is used as the *attribute* after “is,” according to Rule II.

3. Transform any of the foregoing examples, as in the previous Lesson.

4. Correct the following examples:—

It is me. Whom is it? It is him. Whom do you think it is? It is not them.

RULE V. SPECIAL RULE (1.)—EXERCISE.

1. Construct five other examples like the following:—

Delays are dangerous. George was lame. They will be rich. He might have been deceitful. We were successful. Who was merciful? Be active. Will they be peaceful? Be content.

NOTE.—Let the Teacher, if he deems it necessary, add other examples with the subject, attribute, or copula wanting. Let the pupils be required to use adjectives as attributes in propositions of their own.

2. Analyze, classify, and parse the preceding examples:

MODEL.—“Be active” is a simple, imperative sentence. Why? “Thou” understood is the subject. Why? “Be active” is the predicate, of which “be” is the *copula* and “active” the *attribute*. “Be” is an irregular, intransitive

* The predicate, when formed of the copula and attribute, is properly an element of the second class, being a *phrase*. It is most conveniently discussed here, but will be found in its proper place hereafter.

verb, imperative mode, present tense, second person singular, and agrees with "thou," understood. (Rule IV.) "Active" is an adjective used as the attribute after "be," and belongs to "thou," understood. (Rule V.) Special Rule (1), "An adjective used as the attribute," &c.

3. Transform any of the foregoing examples as in the previous Lessons.

RULE IV.—CAUTIONS AND EXERCISES.

CAUTION I. *Avoid the use of a singular verb with a plural subject, or a plural verb with a singular subject.* Say, "Where were you? Not, "Where was you." "Each of his brothers was well." Not, "each were well."

CAUTION II. *Be careful not to use the wrong verb, as, set for sit; lay for lie; come for go; nor the wrong form, as, done for did; wrote for written; nor the wrong tense, as, see for saw; give for gave; nor improper contractions, as, ain't for are not.*

1. Construct five other examples like the following:—

Water flows. Kings have reigned. Vice degrades. Will winter come? Read. James may have written. Isabel sings. Begone, wretch!

NOTE.—Let the Teacher require other examples, if necessary, giving the subjects, and leaving the predicates blank, &c. See previous lessons.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the preceding examples; also, those you have constructed.

NOTE.—For *models* see the preceding.

3. Transform the preceding sentences. Change

the *modes*, *tenses*, and *forms* of the verbs. Give a *synopsis* of the verbs.

4. Correct (Caution I.) the following examples:

There's ten of us going. Was you sheltered from the rain? Henry need not be so positive. Randolph dare not do wrong. Circumstances alters cases. A number of spectators were already there. The captain, with all the crew, were lost.

5. Correct (Caution II.) the following examples:

I seen Peter when he done it. Amanda had broke my pencil. Tell the boys to set still. The cat laid down by the fire. I didn't meant to done it. Ella is going to lay down. Augustus has wrote his letter. Ain't it queer! Ain't they ever going home? Eliza knowed her spelling lesson better than Joseph.

LESSON LIX.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

The adjective element is put in construction with a noun or pronoun.

NOTE.—The adjective element of the sentence is put in construction with the subject.

When the adjective element is an adjective, it is subject to the following rule:—

SPECIAL RULE (2).

(See Rule V.) An adjective or participle used to *limit* or *qualify* a noun, belongs to the noun which it modifies.

With what is the adjective element put in construction? Rule V. (Special 2)?

REM. 1.—The limiting adjective is usually placed before the qualifying; as, “*This old man* ;” “*This valuable hint*.”

REM. 2.—*A* or *an* belongs to nouns in the singular number; as, “*A book* ;” “*an apple*.” But before *few*, *hundred* and *thousand*, it seems to belong to a plural noun; as, “*A hundred ships* ;” “*A few men* ;” “*A thousand pounds*.”

REM. 3.—*The* belongs to nouns either singular or plural; as, “*The man* ; *the men*.”

When the adjective element is a noun or pronoun, it is subject to the following rules:—

RULE VI.—A noun or pronoun used to *explain* or *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; as, “*William the conqueror* defeated *Harold the Saxon king*.”

RULE VII.—A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case; as, “*Stephen's courage failed* ;” “*Whose book is this?*”

REM.—When two or more possessive nouns are connected coördinately, if they imply the possession of *one* object in common, the sign is applied only to the last; as, “*Little and Brown's store* ;” but, if they imply the possession of different objects of the same name, the possessive sign should be applied to each; as, “*I have an Emerson's and a Greenleaf's Arithmetic*.”

RULE V. SPECIAL (2).—CAUTIONS AND EXERCISE.

CAUTION I.—Never use “*a*” before a word beginning with the sound of a vowel, nor “*an*” before a word beginning with the sound of a consonant. Say, *an apple*—not *a apple*.

Give Remark 1. Remark 2. Remark 3. Give Rule VI.
Rule VII. Give Caution I. under Rule V.

CAUTION II.—*Avoid the use of a plural adjective to limit a singular noun.* Say, *That sort of people—not, those sort.*

CAUTION III.—*Never use the pronoun “them” for the adjective “those.”* Say, *Those books—not, them books.*

CAUTION IV.—*Avoid the use of the adjective for the adverb.* Say, *Speak promptly—not, prompt.*

1. Construct other examples like each of the following :—

(1.) (*One limiting adjective.*)—This man came. Five dogs ran. The ink fades. Some scholars study.

(2.) (*One qualifying adjective.*)—Old wood burns. Wise men err. Wicked men fear. Cold winter comes.

(3.) (*Two limiting.*)—The first dawn appeared. The two travellers returned. The second class recites.

(4.) (*One lim. and one qual.*)—Every new lesson puzzles. Any good book instructs. Many old houses fell. The new toy pleases.

(5.) (*Two qualifying.*)—Good little children obey. Pretty wild flowers grew.

(6.) (*One lim. and two qual.*)—The little feathered songster warbles. That ambitious young man excels.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the foregoing examples.

MODEL.—“Cold winter comes,” is a simple declarative sentence. Why? “Winter” is the simple subject; it is the subject without modification or addition. “Comes” is the predicate. Why? Both are elements of the first class. Why? “Cold winter” is the complex subject; it is the simple subject with all its modifications. “Winter” is limited by “cold,” a simple adjective element of the first class? It shows *what kind* of winter it is. “Cold” is a qualifying adjective of the positive degree. See Model, p. 82.

Give Caution II. Caution III. Caution IV.

3. Transform the foregoing sentences, as in previous Lessons.

4. Correct the following examples:—

(1.) (CAUTION I.) He wore an uniform at the ball. Arnold was not a honorable man. I do not like such an one as that. This is an hard saying. Hugh has been gone a hour.

(2.) (CAUTION II.) I do not like those kind of words. The lot is fifty foot wide. We went about six mile an hour.

(3.) (CAUTION III.) Tell them boys to be still. Them apples are quite ripe. Them are the keys. Harry is fond of them things.

(4.) (CAUTION IV.) Beatrice speaks Italian fluent, and plays the harp beautiful. The stream flows silent on. I am exceeding sorry that it was not ready sooner.

RULE VI. EXERCISES.

1. Construct two other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*Simple element.*) King Latinus ruled. Queen Mary reigned. President Taylor died. General Washington commanded.

(2.) (*Complex element.*) Bunyan, the distinguished author, endured. Demosthenes, the celebrated orator, declaimed. Arnold, the base traitor, escaped.

(3.) (*Compound element.*) The Presidents, Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Tyler, were Virginians. The sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella, united Castile and Arragon.

4. (*Complex and compound element.*) Those sisters, the cruel Mary and the sagacious Elizabeth, were queens of England.

3. Classify, analyze, and parse the preceding examples.

MODEL.—“Arnold, the base traitor, escaped,” is a simple declarative sentence. “Arnold” is the simple, and “Arnold the base traitor” is the complex subject. “Escaped” is the predicate. “Arnold” is limited by “the base traitor,” a complex adjective element of the first class — of which “traitor” is the basis, limited by “the” and “base,” simple adjective elements of the first class. “Traitor” is a common noun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case, and is used to identify “Arnold,” according to Rule VI.

RULE VII.—CAUTION AND EXERCISES.

CAUTION.—*Never omit the sign of possession in writing the possessive of a noun, nor employ it in writing that of a pronoun.* Write *man's*, not *mans*; *its*, not *it's*.

1. Construct five other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*Simple element.*) Mary's mother came. Wellington's renown increased. Napoleon's army marched. William's invention failed.

NOTE.—Let the Teacher propose examples in which some of the elements are wanting.

(2.) (*Elements complex.*) The old man's daughter awoke. The merry huntsman's horn aroused. The bright sun's rays illumine.

(3.) (*Elements compound.*) Mason and Dixon's line separates. Webster's, Worcester's, and Richardson's Dictionary, were consulted. (See Remark under the Rule.)

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the preceding examples.

MODEL.—“Wellington’s renown increased” is a simple declarative sentence. Why? “Renown” is the simple, and “Wellington’s renown” the complex subject; “increased” is the predicate. “Renown,” the subject, is limited by “Wellington’s,” a simple adjective element of the first class. Why? It shows *whose* renown is meant. “Wellington’s” is a proper noun, third person, singular number, possessive case; it is used to limit “renown” by denoting possession, according to Rule VII.

3. Transform the foregoing sentences —

(1.) By changing, as in the preceding Lessons.

(2.) By changing the possessive to an element of the second class (consisting of the preposition “of” and its object) placed after the noun. Thus, “*Mary’s* mother,” “the mother of *Mary*.”

4. Correct by the Caution the following examples :—

They studied Websters Spelling Book. This shawl is her’s.
That is Thomas kite. The nations hopes are blasted. Their’s
let the profit be.

5. GENERAL EXERCISE.—Analyze the following sentences, and parse any words which come under the first seven Rules :—

He was a burning and a shining light!

Grim darkness furls his leaden shroud.

Art is long, and time is fleeting. “O” is a vowel.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.

But Hope, the charmer, lingered still behind.

Hushed were his Gertrude’s lips.

Art thou that traitor angel?

Angelica Kauffman was a distinguished artist.

Their only labor was to kill the time.

That life is long, which answer’s life’s great end.

Your friend Harry Vernon has become a distinguished lawyer.
Our harps we left by Babel's stream.
Charles I. was beheaded.
The child was called Maud.
Hail, Sabbath! thee I hail — the poor man's day.

O lives there, Heaven, beneath thy vast expanse,
One hopeless, dark idolater of chance?

Boon nature scattered free and wild,
Each plant or flower, the mountain's child.

But when the sun in all his state,
Illumed the eastern skies,
He passed through Glory's morning gate,
And walked in Paradise.

LESSON LX.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

The objective element is put in construction with a transitive verb by the following rule:—

RULE VIII.—A noun or pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb or its participles, must be in the objective case; as, “He found the *object which he desired.*”

REM. 1.—The indirect object which shows that *to*, or *for* which any thing is, or is done, properly speaking, follows a preposition understood; as, “Give *me* a book” = “Give *to me* a book.” The preposition should be used when the direct object is placed first.

With what is the objective element put in construction? Give Rule VIII. What remark on the indirect object?

REM. 2.—The following verbs, *make*, *appoint*, *elect*, *create*, *constitute*, *render*, *name*, *style*, *call*, *esteem*, *think*, *consider*, *regard*, *reckon*, and some others, take a *double object*—the first *direct*, or *principal*—the second, its attribute, and hence called the *attributive object*; as, “They called him John.”

REM. 3.—The following verbs, *buy*, *sell*, *play*, *sing*, and many others, take two objects, one *direct*, and the other *indirect*; as, “Buy me a knife.”

CAUTION AND EXERCISES.

CAUTION.—Never use the nominative as the object of a transitive verb. Say, “Whom did he visit?”—not “Who did he visit?”

1. Construct five other examples like the following:—

(1.) (*Simple objective.*) Columbus discovered America. Pizarro conquered Peru. Ada uses perfume. James killed flies.

(2.) (*Complex objective.*) He lived a desolate life. They found agreeable companions. She recognized Henry’s voice. Have you read the “Dairyman’s Daughter?” They burned Huss the reformed. Herod beheaded John the Baptist.

(3.) (*Compound objective.*) He declined the honor and the emolument. The grocer kept dates and figs. The legislature passed laws and resolves.

(4.) (*Double object.*) They made him king. He appointed John monitor. They called him George. Give me flowers.

MODEL.—“They made him king” is a simple declarative sentence. “They” is the subject, “made” is the simple and “made him king” the complex predicate. “Made” is modified by “him king,” a double object, both parts being necessary to complete the meaning of the verb;

What verbs take a double object? What is remarked of the verbs *buy*, *sell*, &c.? Give the caution under Rule VIII.

"kim" is the principal, and "king" the attributive object. (See Rule VIII., Rem. 2.) Parse each separately, applying Rule VIII., and Rem. 2.

2. Correct by the Caution the following examples :—

Who did you see yesterday? Who did he marry? They that help us, we should reward. Who should I find but my cousin? I do not know who to send.

3. Classify, analyze, and parse the foregoing sentences.

MODEL.—"Columbus discovered America." It is a simple declarative sentence. Why? "Columbus" is the subject. Why? "Discovered" is the simple, and "discovered America" is the complex predicate. "Discovered" is limited by "America," a simple objective element of the first class, showing *what* Columbus discovered. "America" is a proper noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and is used as the object of "discovered." Rule VIII.

4. Transform any of the foregoing sentences by changing the object into the subject, and the verb from the active to the passive voice. Thus, "America was discovered by Columbus."

5. Construct and analyze five sentences having subjects limited by complex adjective elements, and predicates limited by complex objective elements.

LESSON LXI.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

The adverbial element is put in construction with a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an adverb, by the following rule :—

RULE IX.—Adverbs are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs ; as, “Lightning moves *swiftly*.”

CAUTIONS AND EXERCISES.

CAUTION I.—Never use two negatives to express a negation. Say “I want *no aid*”—not “I *don't* want *no aid*.”

CAUTION II.—Never use “*how*” before “*that*,” nor instead of it. Say, “He said *that* he would come”—not, “*how* he would come.”

1. Construct six other sentences like the following :—

(1.) (*Simple adv. element.*) She played finely. The campaign opened vigorously. The boat arrived yesterday. They ride frequently.

(2.) (*Complex adv. element.*) She hears very imperfectly. They go too often. She sews very neatly. He managed most adroitly.

(3.) (*Adverbial element compound.*) She writes rapidly and neatly. The rain falls softly and silently. He came early and late.

(4.) (*Complex adjective and complex objective wanting.*) —horn aroused — early. — son inherited — legally.

With what is the adverbial element put in construction ? Give Rule IX. Caution I. Caution II.

2. Analyze and parse the foregoing.

MODEL.—"Lawrence writes carefully," is a simple declarative sentence. "Lawrence" is the subject; "writes" is the grammatical, and "writes carefully" the logical predicate. "Writes" is modified by "carefully," a simple adverbial element of the first class; *adverbial*, because it is added to a verb, and shows *how* he writes; *simple*, because it receives no modification or addition; *first class*, because it is a *single word*, expressing both the idea of *care* and its relation to "writes." "Carefully" is an adverb of manner, compared, *carefully, more carefully, most carefully*. It limits "writes." Rule IX.

3. Correct by Caution I. the following examples:

I cannot write no more. Candace says how that she won't go no how. Paul will never be no better. Raymond hasn't been to no shop.

4. Correct the following by Caution II.:

Ella said how she believed it. Just remember how that a penny saved is a penny earned. Isaac said how that he would come.

INTERJECTION AND CASE INDEPENDENT.

RULE X.—The nominative case independent and the interjection have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

1. Construct and parse other examples like these :

(1.) (*By direct address.*) Plato, thou reasonest well. Children, obey your parents.

(2.) (*By exclamation.*) O thought ineffable! O vision blest! O my misfortune! when shall I be released!

(3.) (*By pleonasm.*) The pilgrim fathers, where are they ?
Gad, a troop shall overcome him.

(4.) (*Case absolute.*) (See Rem. p. 100.) He having given us
the direction, we departed. Shame being lost, all virtue is
lost.

MODEL.—“Plato, thou reasonest well,” is a simple sentence.
Why? “Thou” is the simple subject; “reasonest” is
the simple, and “reasonest well” is the complex predicate.
“Plato” is a proper noun, second person, singular num-
ber, masculine gender, and nominative case independent,
by direct address; it forms no part of the proposition.
Rule X.

2. Construct five examples containing interjec-
tions, and parse them by the rule.

MODEL.—“Alas ! I then have chid away my friend.” “Alas”
is an interjection ; it has no grammatical relation to the
rest of the sentence. Rule X.

GENERAL PARSING EXERCISES.

Imperial Rome governed the bodies of men, but not their
souls.

The sentinel inquired, “Who comes there ?”

Speak softly, for a breath might wake her.

Fair daffodils ! we weep to see you haste away so soon.

The pilgrim fathers, where are they !

Sweet day ! so calm, so still, so bright,

The bridal of the earth and sky.

Let us repeat that prayer in the hour when the wicked assail
us. Let us repeat it now, and say, “O Father, forgive them !”

Thou, too, sail on, O ship of State !

Sail on, O UNION, strong and great !

Fear not each sudden sound and shock,

’Tis of the wave, and not the rock.

Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea !

Our hearts, our hopes, are all with thee.

LESSON LXII.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF CONNECTIVES.—COÖRDINATE CONNECTIVES.

(PARTIAL COMPOUND SENTENCES.)

Coördinate connectives are used when the parts to be united are similar. The sentence then has one or more of its parts compound, and is called a *partial compound* sentence.

RULE XI.—*Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements. “Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob were Jewish patriarchs.”

EXERCISES.

1. Construct three other examples like each of these :—

(1.) (*Subjects coördinate.*) Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution. Romulus and Remus were twin brothers.

(2.) (*Predicates coördinate.*) Education expands and elevates the mind. Religion refines and purifies the affections. No fascinated throng weep, and melt, and tremble at his eloquence.

(3.) (*Adj. element coördinate.*) Wise and good men are frequently unsuccessful. A bright and glorious prospect is opened by Christianity. A plain and simple style recommends and heightens the sublime.

(4.) (*Obj. element coördinate.*) Pope wrote the Messiah, and the Essay on Criticism. Behold my mother and my brethren. The creation demonstrates God's power and wisdom.

(5.) (*Adverbial element coördinate.*) The preacher's voice grew fainter and fainter. Live quietly and contentedly.

When are coördinate connectives used? Give Rule XI.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse the foregoing examples.

MODEL.—“Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob were Jewish patriarchs.” It is a partial compound sentence, because one of its parts, the subject, is compound. It is declarative. Why? “Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob,” is the compound subject, consisting of three component parts. Name them. “Were Jewish patriarchs” is the complex, and “were patriarchs” the simple predicate; “and” is a coördinate conjunction, and is used to connect the similar elements “Isaac” and “Jacob,” according to Rule XI.

3. Construct and analyze other examples like the above, with the component parts complex.

4. Transform the foregoing examples by making them into complete compound sentences. Thus:—

“Abraham was a Jewish patriarch, Isaac was a Jewish patriarch, and Jacob was a Jewish patriarch.” Then suppress the common part and restore the sentence to its present form.

In constructing a verb or a pronoun which relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction, observe the following rule:—

RULE XII.—(1.) If the verb or pronoun agrees with them *conjointly*, it must be in the plural number.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with *one*, and *not* the other, it must take the number of that one.

EXERCISES.

Construct other examples like these:—

(1.) (*Conjointly.*) Charles and his sister were absent, but

Give Rule XII.

they were sent for. One day the poor woman and her idiot boy were missed from the market-place.

(2.) (*Separately.*) Neither his vote, his influence, nor his purse was ever withheld from the cause in which he had engaged. Neither the captain, nor the sailors were saved.

(3.) (*One, and not the other.*) Charles, and not his sister, ~~was~~ absent. The parents, and not the child, are responsible.

LESSON LXIII.

ELEMENTS OF THE SECOND CLASS — PHRASES.

An element of the second class is always a *phrase*, and is usually an infinitive, or a preposition and its object.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF THE PREPOSITION.

RULE XIII.—A *preposition* is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends; as, “George *went into* the garden.”

RULE XIV.—A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a preposition, must be in the objective case; as, “The ruins *of* the Parthenon stand upon the Acropolis *in* the city of Athens.”

REM. 1.—The preposition is generally to be supplied before nouns denoting *time, measure, distance, value*, — or after the adjectives *like, near, nigh, worth*; as, “He walked [through] two miles;” “He is like [to] his father.”

Give Rule XIII. Rule XIV. In what cases is the preposition generally omitted?

1. Construct other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*The subject—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—To love exalts. To exercise strengthens. To forgive ennobles. To walk invigorates.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—To see the sun is pleasant. To know oneself is the highest wisdom. To soothe thy sickness, and to watch thy health, shall be my pleasure. To toil for, and yet to lose the reward of virtue, is the hard lot of man.

(2.) (*Predicate—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—Coffee is fragrant. Medicine is nauseous. He is a scholar. To err is human. Her hope is to return. The lady is in grief. To obey is to enjoy.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—The present life is not wholly prosaic, precise, tame, and finite. To pray is to render thanks to God, to adore him, and to supplicate his mercy.

(3.) (*Adjective element—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—The temple of Solomon was destroyed. The gates of the convent were closed. The bard of Avon sleeps.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—Men of tried character were found. An observation of the sun in the meridian was taken. The reign of William and Mary commenced with the glorious revolution of 1688. The tops of Olympus and Parnassus reached above the clouds.

(4.) (*Objective element—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—They hoped to succeed. She desired to write. He strives to excel. Ada is trying to learn.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND.—The book deserves to be read with great care. I intended to write a full account of the affair. He chooses to die and to redeem his friend. She is led to engage in calmer pursuits, and to seek for gentler employment.

(5.) (*Adverbial element—a phrase.*) SIMPLE.—

(a.) Place.—She came to the city. Anna sat in the carriage. Rain falls from the clouds. The lion roars in the forest.

(b.) *Time*.—The boat sailed in the morning. The convention will meet on Tuesday. Come at noon. In the morning, it flourisheth.

(c.) *Cause*.—Ella ran from fear. The inhabitants are perishing from famine. The party were travelling for pleasure.

(d.) *Manner*.—The messenger came in haste. The orator spoke with fluency. The Greeks succeeded by stratagem. Emily was delighted with her present.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND MISCELLANEOUS. With trembling limbs and faltering steps, he departed from his mansion of sorrow. I have spent my days in darkness and error. The commissioners came to examine the ground, and to hear the statements of the opposing parties. On Monday or Tuesday, the examination will commence. Across the lake, through bush and brake, resounds the bugle horn.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse any of the foregoing examples.

MODEL.—“This ancient city was situated at the head of the bay,” is a simple declarative sentence. Why? “This ancient city” is the complex, and “city” the simple subject. “Was situated at the head of the bay” is the complex, and “was situated” the simple predicate. “City,” the subject, is limited by “this” and “ancient,” two simple adjective elements of the first class. The predicate, “was situated,” is limited by “at the head of the bay,” a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which “at the head” is the basis; “at” is the preposition, and “head” the object; “head” is limited by “the,” a simple adjective element of the first class, and by “of the bay,” a complex adjective element of the second class; “of bay” is the basis, “of” the preposition, and “bay” the object, and is limited by “the” (described as above). “At” is a preposition, and shows the relation of “head” to “was situated.” Rule XIII. “Head” is a common noun, third person, sing. num., neut. gen., obj. case, and is used as the object of the preposition “at.” Rule XIV.

3. Transform any of the preceding examples —

(1.) By changing the class of the sentence (interrogative, imperative, exclamatory).

(2.) By transposing the subject of No. 1 (1), and introducing the sentence by "it." Thus, "*It is pleasant to see the sun.*"

(3.) By altering any of the second class elements in No. 1 (3), to first class. Thus, "*Solomon's temple was destroyed.*"

(4.) By transposing the adverbial element in No. 1 (5) (*a, b, c, d.*) Thus, "*To the city she came.*"

GENERAL EXERCISES. — Analyze and parse the following examples:—

A distinction ought to be made between fame and true honor.

I would calmly and humbly submit myself to the good and blessed will of God.

Where was it when winds and clouds were its only visitors ?
Neither moon nor stars shine upon the wanderer.

Strong proofs, not a loud noise, produce conviction.
Not the boys, but the farmer, was in fault.

From shore to shore, from cliff to cliff, 'twas free.

The mountains, like huge giants, stand.

The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,
The swallow, twittering from the straw-built shed,
The cock's shrill clarion, or the echoing horn,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

COMPLEX SENTENCES. — ELEMENTS THIRD CLASS.

An element of the third class is always a *clause* consisting of a connective and a proposition.

What is an element of the third class ?

LESSON LXIV

CONSTRUCTION OF SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES.

RULE XV. *Subordinate connectives* are used to join dissimilar elements; as, “He that hath pity on the poor, lendeth to the Lord.”

REM. 1.—Elements are dissimilar when they differ in their *nature, rank, or form*. See Lessons LIII., LIV., LV.

REM. 2.—The subordinate connective unites the clause which it introduces, to the word which the clause limits; as, “I *perceive* that you need assistance.”

EXERCISES.

1. Construct three other examples like each of the following :*—

(1.) (*Subject—a clause.*) That he deceived, became certain. Who wrote Junius's letters is uncertain. That their poetry was almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian. That we are, as yet, only in the rudiments of the great science of education, cannot be questioned.

(2.) (*Attribute—a clause.*) My desire is, that you may succeed. His pretence was, that the storm of the preceding evening prevented his attendance. Your belief is, that the enemy has crossed the country. My proposition is, that your son shall return to college, that you shall go abroad, and that the

* Simple, complex, and compound elements are here mingled, to afford an exercise for the learner in distinguishing and imitating them.

Give Rule XV. When are elements dissimilar? What does the subordinate connective unite?

house shall be closed during your absence. His answer was, that he approved the plan of the measure, and that he was confident of its success.

(3.) (*Adjective element—a clause.*) Evils which cannot be cured, must be endured. He who reads in a proper spirit, can scarcely read too much. Slaves and savages who receive no education, are proverbially indolent. A cottage which is shaded with trees, and which is situated far from the noise and bustle of the city, is a very pleasant retreat. That faith which is one, which renews and justifies all who possess it, which confessions and formularies can never adequately express, is the property of all alike.

(4.) (*Objective element—a clause.*) Many suppose that the planets are inhabited. The insane imagine that they alone are sane. We all know how a man of mighty genius can impart himself to other minds. Every one should feel that his existence stretches beyond the limits of this mortal life. He heard that his wife had fallen a lingering sacrifice to penury and sorrow; that his children had gone to seek their fortunes in distant or unknown climes; and that the grave contained his nearest and most valuable friends.

(5.) (*Adverbial element—a clause.*)* They were sitting where the branches of a spreading elm protected them from the burning rays of the noonday sun. As far as the east is from the west, so far has he removed our transgressions from us. While I was musing, the fire burned. When two lines cross each other, the opposite angles are equal. Ye shall not see me, because I go unto my father. Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor. Speak as you think. Happiness is more equally divided than some suppose. While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered and slept. As we grow older, life becomes dim in the distance. Wherever we are, we are not forgotten by a kind Providence. When a few more friends have left us, a few more hopes deceived, and a

* Let the learner distinguish those which denote *place, time, cause, and manner.* .

few more changes mocked us, we shall be brought to the grave, and remain in the tomb. He takes us from earth, that he may lead us to heaven, that he may refine our nature from all its principles of corruption, that he may share with us his own immortality, that he may admit us to his everlasting habitation, and that he may crown us with his eternity.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse any of the foregoing examples.

MODEL.—“When the wicked are multiplied, transgression increaseth,” is a complex, declarative sentence; *complex*, because it contains dissimilar clauses—“transgression increaseth” being the principal, and “when the wicked are multiplied,” the subordinate clause. “Transgression,” the subject of the principal clause, is the subject of the sentence; “increaseth” is the simple, and “increaseth when the wicked are multiplied” is the complex predicate. “Increaseth” is limited by “when the wicked are multiplied,” a complex adverbial element of the third class, of which “when wicked (more exactly ‘persons’ understood) are multiplied” is the basis. “Persons” understood is limited by “the” and “wicked;” or “wicked” used as a noun is limited by “the;” the predicate is not limited. “When” is a subordinate connective (conjunctive adverb of time) and joins the adverbial clause, which it introduces to “increaseth,” the predicate of the principal clause. Rule XV. It limits “are multiplied,” and “increaseth,” according to Rule IX.

3. Transform any of the foregoing examples—

- (1.) By altering the subordinate clause to a *word* or *phrase*.
- (2.) By transposing it.
- (3.) By changing the entire sentence to a declarative, interrogative, &c.
- (4.) By making the subordinate into a principal clause.

Thus, "They were sitting, and the branches of a spreading elm protected them from the burning rays of the noonday sun."

(5.) Change examples in No. 1 (1), by introducing the sentence with "it." Thus, "It became certain that he deceived."

4. Change any of the following adjective, objective, or adverbial elements into clauses, thus converting simple into complex sentences :—

Trees growing at the foot of the mountain, are taller than those on the summit. A *persevering* man will overcome obstacles. A *discontented* man cannot be happy. I do not remember *the time of the lecture*. The ancients believed *the earth to be a vast plain*. *On our arrival*, all was bustle and confusion. Thus, "A man who *perseveres*, will prosper."

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

A compound sentence is formed by uniting two or more principal propositions by either of the coördinate conjunctions.

LESSON LXV.

EXERCISES.

1. Construct other examples like the following :

(1.) (*Copulative clauses.*) We shall feel the same revolution of the seasons, and the same sun and moon will guide the course of our year. Modesty is one of the chief ornaments of youth; and it has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit. You know I love country life, and here we have it in perfection.

How is a compound sentence formed ?

(2.) (*Adversative clauses.*) The man was communicative enough, but nothing was distinct in his mind. A clownish air is but a small defect; yet it is enough to make a man disagreeable. Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden; but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope. I believe there are few heads capable of making Sir Isaac Newton's calculations, but the result of them is not difficult to be understood by a moderate capacity.

(3.) (*Alternative clauses.*) We must fight, or our liberties will be lost. Never utter any profane speeches, nor make a jest of any scriptural expressions. Either he will hate the one, and love the other, or else he will hold to the one, and despise the other. Neither hath this man sinned, nor his parents.

2. Classify, analyze, and parse any of the preceding.

MODEL.—“ You know I love country life, and here we have it in perfection.” It is a compound declarative sentence; *compound*, because it contains similar clauses; *declarative*, because it declares something. “ You know I love country life,” is the first, and “ here we have it in perfection,” is the second principal proposition. They are coördinate with each other, and are connected by “ and,” which is a copulative coördinate conjunction. Rule XI. [Analyze each proposition separately, as a simple sentence.]

3. Transform any of the preceding examples (where it can be done) by changing one of the clauses (1) to a subordinate clause; (2) to a participial construction.

MODEL.—Play with a fool at home, and he will play with you abroad = If you play with a fool at home, he will play with you abroad = By playing with a fool at home, he will play with you abroad.

LESSON LXVI.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE.

In changing a complex to a simple sentence, we must change the verb of the subordinate clause to an infinitive or a participle. They are then disposed of by the following rules :—

RULE XVI.—The *infinitive* has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the verb, and, when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits ; as, “*To err* is human ;” “They desire *to travel in a foreign country*.”

REM. 1.—The infinitive may be associated with the subject which the verb had before the subordinate clause was changed ; as, “We wish that *you* would *stay*” = We wish *you to stay* ; or that subject may be dropped, and the infinitive may appear without it ; as, We wish that *we* might *stay* = We wish *to stay*.

REM. 2.—When the infinitive follows *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, and *feel*, in the active voice, the “*to*” is omitted ; as, “I saw him *do it*.”

RULE XVII.—Participles have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs* ; as, “He *stooping down*, and *looking in*, saw the linen clothes *lying* ; yet went he not in.” “A habit of sincerity in *acknowledging* faults is a guard against committing them.”

When is the subordinate clause changed to the infinitive or participle ? Give Rule XVI. Rule XVII. With what may the infinitive be associated ?

REM. 1.—The participle, like the infinitive, may be associated with the subject which the verb had before the subordinate clause was changed. When this subject remains in the nominative case, it is parsed by the following rule.—

A noun or pronoun is put in the *nominative absolute*, with a participle, when its case depends upon no other word; as, “*Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.*”

REM. 2.—The participle, when used as an *adjective*, assumes the action which the verb *asserts*. When used as a *noun*, it is equivalent to the infinitive, and may be (1) *wholly* a noun; as, “*It is pleasant to walk at the rising of the sun;*” or *partially* so; as, “*We should avoid giving pain to others.*” In the last example, the participle retains some of its verbal character, thereby governing “*pain.*”

EXERCISES.

1. Construct three other examples like each of the following:—

(1.) (*Inf. and part.—subject.*) Lying is the vice of slaves. To steal is base. To forgive is divine. To mourn without measure, is folly; not to mourn at all, insensibility. Cheating, stealing, swearing, and traducing, are all criminal. To deprive me of liberty, to torture me, or to imprison me, is not your right.

(2.) (*Inf. and part.—predicate.*) The boat is approaching. Night is coming. The ceremony was performed. The boy is to be educated. The boat is to sail on Tuesday. The ship was lying at anchor. The great object of education is, not to store the mind with knowledge, but to give activity and vigor to its power.

(3.) (*Inf. and part.—adj. element.*) Ages yet to come will develop greater improvements in the arts than are now aston-

Give Remark I. Give the rule for the nominative absolute. What is said of the participle used as an adjective? When used as a noun?

ishing mankind. A desire to aid his friend led him to encounter every danger, and surmount every difficulty. The setting sun is a beautiful object. Being convinced of his guilt, we resolved to punish him.

(4.) (*Inf. and part.—obj. element.*) The problem has to be wrought out. It teaches us to be thankful for all favors received, to love each other, and to be united. The decalogue forbids worshipping idols.

(5.) (*Inf. and part.—adv. element.*) They ascended the Nile to discover its source. I have brought this flower to show you the peculiar structure of its petals. The legislature appointed commissioners to make a geological survey of the state. Hope “springs exulting on triumphant wings.”

2. Transform, analyze, and parse the preceding examples. Thus, “*That one should steal*, is base.”

GENERAL EXERCISE.—Analyze and parse the following examples:—

While there is life, there is hope.

Whatever is, is right.

She hath done what she could.

The red-breast loves to build and warble there.

Let not Ambition mock their useful toil.

The storm rising, Julia hastened home.

Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll,—

Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain

Then, kneeling down to Heaven’s eternal King,

The saint, the husband, and the father prays;

Hope “springs exulting on triumphant wing,”

That thus they all shall meet in future days.

There is a glorious city in the sea;

The tide is in the broad, the narrow streets,

Ebbing and flowing;—and the salt sea-weed

Clings to the marble of her palaces.

No track of men—no footsteps to and fro,

Lead to her gates—the path lies o’er the sea.

Inspiring thought of rapture yet to be!
The tears of love were hopeless but for thee.
If in that frame, no deathless spirit dwell,
If that faint murmur be the last farewell,
If fate unite the faithful but to part,
Why is their memory sacred to the heart?

PROSODY.

LESSON LXVII.

VERSE, FEET, SCANNING.

PROSODY treats of the laws of versification.

A *verse* is a succession of accented and unaccented syllables, constituting a line of poetry.

Verse is of two kinds—*rhyme* and *blank verse*.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to that of another.

Blank verse is verse without rhyme.

A *foot* is two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

The principal feet, in English, are the *iambus*, the *trochee*, the *anapaest*, and the *dactyl*.

The *iambus* consists of a short and a long syllable; as, *invīte*, *dēvōte*, *bēnīgn*.

Of what does Prosody treat? What is a verse? How many kinds? What constitutes rhyme? What is blank verse? What is a foot? What are the principal feet in English? Of what does the iambus consist?

The *trochee* consists of a long and a short syllable ; as, *grātefūl*, *griēvoūs*.

The *anapæst* consists of two short syllables, and one long one ; as, *īncōmplētē*, *cōndēscēnd*.

The *dactyl* consists of one long syllable and two short ones ; as, *pōsītīvē*, *lōnelīnēss*.

Scanning consists in dividing a verse into the feet which compose it.

EXAMPLES AND EXERCISES.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. *Iambic of one foot* :—

Thēy gō
To sow.

2. *Iambic of two feet* :—

Tō mē | thē rōse
No longer glows.

3. *Iambic of three feet* :—

Nō rōy- | āl pōmp | ādōrns
This King of righteousness.

4. *Iambic of four feet* :—

And cōld- | ēr stīl | thē wīnd | dīd blōw
And darker hours of night came on.

5. *Iambic of five feet, or pentameter* :—

On rīft- | ēd rōcks, | thē drāg- | ēn's lātē | ābōdes
The green reed trembles, and the bulrush nods.

Of what does the trochee consist ? The anapæst ? The dactyle ? What is meant by scanning ?

6. *Iambic of six feet, or hexameter* :—

His heart | is sad, | his hope | is gone, | his light | is passed;
He sits and mourns in silent grief the lingering day.

7. *Iambic of seven feet, or heptameter* :—

Thē lōf- | tȳ hill, | thē hūm- | blē lāwn, | wīth cōunt- | lēss beāu-
tiēs shīne.

The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power divine.

Iambic of five feet is called *heroic* verse; that of six feet is called *Alexandrine*.

Iambic of seven feet is commonly divided into two lines,—the first containing four feet, the second three. This is called *common metre*; as,

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
With countless beauties shine;
The silent grove, the solemn shade,
Proclaim thy power divine.

In *long metre*, each line has four iambic feet; in *short metre*, the first, second, and fourth lines contain three iambic feet, the third four.

Each species of iambic verse may have one additional short syllable. Thus, in the second species,—

Upōn | ă mōun- | taīn.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. *Trochaic of one foot* :—

Chāngǐng,
Ranging.

2. *Trochaic of two feet* :—

Fāncȳ | viēwǐng,
Joys ensuing.

What is iambic of five feet called? Of six feet? Explain common metre, long metre, and short metre?

3. *Trochaic of three feet* :—

Gō whēre | glōrȳ | wāits thēe.
But when fame elates thee.

4. *Trochaic of four feet* :—

Rōund ā | hōlȳ | cālm dīf- | fūsing,
Love of peace and lonely musing.

5. *Trochaic of five feet* :—

All thāt | wālk ǒn | fōot ǒr | rīde īn | chāriōts,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic of six feet* :—

On ā | mōuntāin | strētched, bě- | nēath ā hōarȳ | willōw,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

In trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllables ; in iambic, on the even.

Trochaic verse may take an additional long syllable ; as,

Idlē | aftēr | dinnēr, | īn hīs | chāir
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. *Anapæstic of one foot* :—

Būt īn vāin
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet* :—

Whēre thē sūn | lōves tō pāuse
With so fond a delay.

3. *Anapæstic of three feet* :—

Frōm thē cēn- | trē, ǎll rōund | tō thē sēa
I'm lord of the fowl and the brute.

4. *Anapæstic of four feet* :—

At thē clōse | ǒf thē dāy, | whēn thē hām- | lēt īs still,
And mōrtals the swēets of forgētfulness prove.

Where is the accent placed in trochaic verse ?

In anapaestic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapaestic verse may be an iambus ; as,

And mōr- | tāls thē swēets | ūf fōrgēt- | fūlnēss prōve.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. *Dactylic of one foot* :—

Chēerfūlly,
Fearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet* :—

Frēe frōm ănx- | iětȳ,
Care and satiety.

3. *Dactylic of three feet* :—

Weāring ā- | wāy īn hīs | yoūthfūlnēss,
Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic of four feet* :—

Bōys will ăn- | tīcipăte, | lāvish, ănd | dīssipăte
All that your busy pate hoarded with care.

Few poems are perfectly regular in their feet. The different kinds of feet are often mingled in the same verse. Thus :—

I cōme, | I cōme ; | yě hăve cālled | mě lōng ;
I cōme | ő'er thē mōun- | taīns wīth līght | ănd sōng.

NOTE.—For exercises in scanning, let the pupil apply these rules to different verses in his reading lessons.

Where does the accent fall in anapaestic verse ?

PUNCTUATION.

LESSON LXVIII.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written composition by means of points.

The principal points are the *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *dash* (—), the *parenthesis* (), the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (?), the *exclamation point* (!).

REM.—The comma, semicolon, colon, dash, and parenthesis, are used to separate the parts of a sentence ; the period, interrogation point, and exclamation point, are used to separate entire sentences.

THE COMMA.

The *comma* is used to denote the shortest pause, and commonly separates the elements of a simple or complex sentence. It should always be used where the position of the words may lead to a wrong connection or dependence of the parts, and consequently to a misapprehension of the author's meaning.

RULE I.—When the elements of a sentence are *simple*, and are arranged in the natural order, they should not be separated ; but when any element is transposed, loosely connected, or used parenthetically, it should generally be pointed off.

What is punctuation ? Give the Remark. Give Rule I.

EXAMPLES.

The path of virtue is the path of peace.

Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.

To confess the truth, I was to blame.

The ship leaps, as it were, from billow to billow.

NOTE.—This rule includes all such expressions as *again*, *beside*, *in short*, *in vain*, *in brief*, the nominative case independent, and several of the interjections.

EXERCISE.

1. Punctuate the following examples:—

Go where a man may home is the centre to which the heart turns.

Here comes his body mourned by Mark Anthony.

Nature through all her works delights in variety.

He being dead yet speaketh.

I thank thee Roderick for the word.

Accordingly the chronicles of the middle ages teem with crime.

His story is in short the tale of an impostor.

At the base of the mountain we dismounted from our horses.

All nature is but art unknown to thee;

All chance direction which thou canst not see.

2. Punctuate the following examples:—

NOTE.—Here let the teacher read examples from any book, requiring the use of the comma, and let the pupils copy the words, and insert the comma in its proper place.

RULE II.—When an element is *complex*, and considerably extended, it should be pointed off by the comma.

EXAMPLES.

We visited Abbotsford, the home of Sir Walter Scott.

An indiscriminate reading of novels and romances, is exceedingly injurious to the young.

NOTE.—This rule applies when elements, if simple and arranged in the natural order, would not be pointed. Thus, “Paul the Apostle” is not separated; but “Paul, the great Apostle to the gentiles,” is separated, because the italicised element is complex. When such an element is inverted, loosely connected, or used parenthetically, it is for a still stronger reason, pointed off. The rule applies particularly to the subject, the noun in apposition, when modified by expressions considerably extended.

EXERCISE.

Punctuate the following examples:—

In the contemplation of these august teachers of mankind we are filled with conflicting emotions.

That a peculiar state of the mere particles of the brain should be followed by a change of the state of the sentient mind is truly wonderful.

The ancients separated the corn from the ear by causing an ox to trample on the sheaves.

General Washington the first President of the United States was a true patriot a genuine lover of his country.

The more highly we cultivate our minds here the better shall we be prepared for the nobler pursuits of the next stages of our existence.

RULE III.—When an element is *compound*, the component parts, if they exceed two, are separated by a comma; as, “Some men sin frequently, deliberately, and presumptuously.”

NOTE.—This rule applies to all coördinate expressions, whether *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*. Two coördinate parts are not separated by a comma, except (1) when they denote an *alternative of words*, and not of ideas; as, “The gulf, or bay is dangerous;” (2) when they denote a *contrast*; as “Though deep, yet clear; (3) when one or both are *complex*, and con-

siderably extended ; as, "He left, and took his brother with him ;" (4) when the conjunction is omitted ; as, "Thomas is a *plain, honest* man ;" (5) when the same element is repeated ; as, "Verily, verily, I say unto you."

EXAMPLES.

Punctuate the following examples :—

See through this air this ocean and this earth
All matter quick and bursting into birth.

Speak as you mean do as you profess and perform what you promise.

You are a parent or a child a brother or a sister a husband or a wife a friend or an associate of some kindred soul.

Has God provided for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air a paler sky ?

Industry honesty and temperance are essential to happiness.
Lend lend your wings.

Woe woe to the rider that tramples them down.

It is a star or some distant light.

The storms of many winters and the scorching heats of many summers have visited that ruin.

Contrasted faults through all their manners reign,
Though poor luxurious ; though submissive vain ;
Though grave yet trifling ; zealous yet untrue ;
And even in penance planning sins anew.

THE COLON AND SEMICOLON.

The *colon* and *semicolon* are used chiefly to separate the members of a loose sentence ; as, "Make a proper use of your time ; for the loss of it can never be regained."

What is said of the colon and semicolon ?

REM. 1.—The colon is now but little used, except before examples following the expressions, *as follows*, *the following examples*, *in these words*; as, “Perform the following exercises:”

REM. 2.—When, in a complex sentence, several subordinate clauses are united to each other, having a common dependence upon the principal clause, they are separated by the semicolon; as, “Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that future generations will continue to make discoveries.”

EXERCISE.

Insert the comma, the semicolon, and the colon where they are required in the following examples:

Never value yourself upon your fortune for this is the sign of a weak mind.

Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope.

The great tendency and purpose of poetry is to carry the mind above and beyond the beaten dusty weary walks of ordinary life to lift it into a purer element and to breathe into it more profound and generous emotion.

Write on your slate the following example Mary and John will go.

The great, the wise and the good were there.

Endeavor to excel much may be accomplished by perseverance.

THE DASH AND PARENTHESIS.

The *dash* is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished; as, “He sometimes coun-

Give Remark I. Remark II. What is said of the dash and parenthesis?

sel takes — and sometimes snuff." "But I must first —."

REM.—The dash is now frequently used instead of the parenthesis; as, "The colonists — such is human nature — desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched."

The *parenthesis* is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but in some way explanatory of the meaning of the sentence ; as, " Consider (and ma_r, the consideration sink deep into your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life."

EXERCISE.

Insert the dash and the parenthesis where they are required in the following examples :—

Horror burst the bands of sleep ; but my feelings words are too weak, too powerless to express them. The Egyptian style of architecture see Dr. Pocock, not his discourses but his prints was apparently the mother of the Greek. While they wished to please, and why should they not wish it, they disdained honorable means. If thou art he, so much respected once but, O, how fallen ! how degraded !

THE PERIOD.

The *period* is used at the close of a declarative or an imperative sentence. It is also used to denote an abbreviation.

EXAMPLES.

Knowledge is not only pleasant, but useful and honorable.
Let what you have gained be an impulse to something higher.
If you will, you can rise. The age of MSS. is, in some instances, known by dates inserted in them.

EXERCISE.

Insert the period where it is required in the following examples:—

Truth is the basis of every virtue

It is the voice of reason Let its precepts be religiously obeyed Never transgress its limits Abhor a falsehood

I would say to the people, You cannot, without guilt and disgrace, stop where you are

The oration was delivered by J L Thompson, Esq

The event occurred B C 1001

To R H Dana Jun Esq the well-known author of "Two Years before the Mast," the community are greatly indebted

But the seasons are not alike in all countries of the same region, for the reasons already given See Chap VI § 2 ¶ 4 p 330

INTERROGATION POINT.

An *interrogation point* is used at the close of a sentence; as, "Who comes there?"

REM.—When an interrogative sentence is used as a subordinate clause—

(1.) The interrogation point is employed when the clause is quoted directly; as, "He said, Why do you weep?"

(2.) The interrogation point is not employed where the clause is quoted indirectly; as, "He asked me why I wept."

EXCLAMATION POINT.

An *exclamation point* is used at the close of an exclamatory sentence; as, "How unsearchable are his ways!"

REM.—An exclamation point is often used within a sentence, after an exclamatory expression or an interjection; as, "O,

How is the interrogation point used? The exclamation point. What Remark.

Jove Supreme! whom men and gods revere!" "O! let soft pity touch the mind!"

EXERCISES.

Insert interrogation and exclamation points where they are required in the following examples:—

Daughter of Faith awake arise illume the dread unknown the chaos of the tomb

Whither shall I turn Wretch that I am To what place shall I betake myself

O Pascal thou wert pure in heart in this world, and now thou art in full sight of God

Apostles of liberty what millions attest the authenticity of your mission

To purchase heaven has gold the power

Who shall separate us from the love of Christ

Punctuate correctly in all respects the following examples:—

What a piece of work is man How noble in reason how infinite in faculties in form and moving how express and admirable in action how like an angel in apprehension how like a God

Dr H Marsh F R S &c Bishop of Peterborough b 1757 d 1839

As the pupil is often obliged to bend all his faculties to the task before him and tears sometimes fall on the page he is studying so it is in the school of God's providence there are hard lessons in it

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING.

Brackets ([]) are used when a word or phrase is introduced for explanation or connection; as, "He [the teacher] thus explained the difficulty."

The *Apostrophe* (') is used either to denote the possessive case, or the omission of a letter; as, "John's." "O'er."

The *Quotation Marks* (" ") are used to include a passage taken verbatim from some other author; as, "He said, 'I relinquish my claim.' "

The *Asterisk* (*), the *Obelisk* (†), the *Double Dagger* (‡), and the *Parallels* (||), are used to refer to notes in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Sometimes the *Section* (§) and the *Paragraph* (¶) are used. Also, small letters, or figures, which refer to notes at the foot of the page.

The *Caret* (^) is used in writing to show that some letter, word, or phrase has been omitted; as, "The pencil lies ^{on} the table."

The *Hyphen* (-) is used to separate the parts of a compound word; as, "Book-binder." When placed at the end of a line, it shows that a word is divided, the remaining part being carried to the next line.

The *Ellipsis* (* * *) (—) is used to denote the omission of certain letters or words; as, "C * * * ll." "K — g."

The *Brace* } connects a number of words with one common term.

The *Index* () points to some remarkable passage.

The *Section* (§) also denotes the divisions of a treatise.

A *Paragraph* (¶) also denotes the beginning of a new subject.

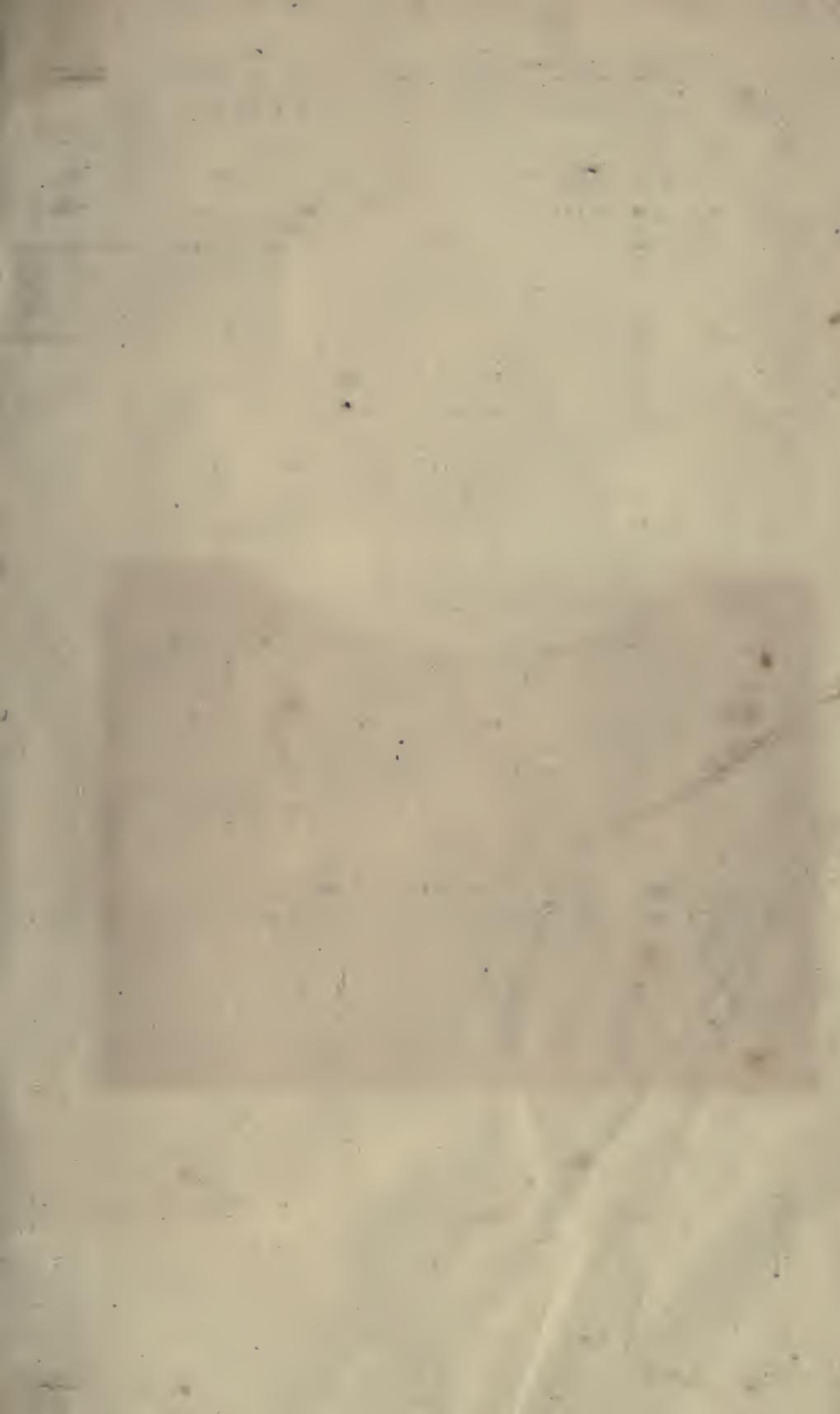
The vowel marks are the *Diaeresis* (..), placed over the second of two vowels which are separated; the *Long sound* (-), placed over a long vowel; the *Breve* or *Short sound* (~), placed over a short vowel; and accents, *Grave* (`), *Acute* ('), and *Circumflex* (^).

REM.—The best practical exercises on all these marks and points will be given by the teacher. Let the pupil be required

to construct sentences involving the use of them ; or let the teacher read from some book, any passage which demands their use, and let the class insert them in their proper places.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

- (1.) The first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital ; as, "*Jesus wept.*"
- (2.) Titles of honor and respect, and every proper name, and every adjective derived from a proper name, should begin with a capital ; as, *His Highness, Boston, Bostonian.*
- (3.) Every appellation of the Deity should begin with a capital ; as, *God, Jehovah, the Eternal.*
- (4.) The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital.
- (5.) The words "I" and "O" should always be capitals.
- (6.) Any important word may begin with a capital.
- (7.) The principal words in the titles of books should begin with capitals ; as, *Pope's "Essay on Man."*
- (8.) The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation forms a complete sentence of itself, should begin with a capital.





YA 04398

42 Bell

12

541183

840

G 812

Edu
1960

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY

COWPERTHWAITE & CO.

BOOKSELLERS AND PUBLISHERS,
Philadelphia.

Laying the attention of the Public to the following
VALUABLE SCHOOL BOOKS.

WARREN'S SERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES.
THE PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY.
THE COMMON-SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY.
THE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

These three books form a complete geographical course, adapted to all grades of schools. The series is used in most of the principal cities and towns of the United States, and nearly every book has been adopted by even rote, in the schools of those who have used or examined them.

GREEN'S SERIES OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS.
GREEN'S INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.
GREEN'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.
GREEN'S ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The valuable series of school books was prepared by Prof. Susan C. Green, of Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island. The great recommendation of Green is the fact that they are now in general use in schools in the higher class of towns in all parts of the United States.

WEBER'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

This new history is written in a most interesting style, and the prominent events of our country's history are presented in so clear a manner that the book can be easily comprehended and mastered by pupils.